

**SELF-CONTROL AND INTEGRITY AS ANTECEDENTS OF DEVIANT
WORKPLACE BEHAVIOUR**

by

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study was to establish, within the South African context, the extent to which character-strengths specifically self-control and integrity are related to the propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour. Due to the inherent difficulty of obtaining unbiased responses on sensitive issues, both self-report and non-self-report measures of each of the Character Strengths and Deviant Workplace Behaviour Scales were administered to a convenience sample of 292 South African employees working in different industries. Using principal axis factoring, one reliable factor was extracted from both the Self-control Scale and the Integrity Scale. With regards to the Deviant Workplace Behaviour Scale, three reliable factors were extracted. The character strength factors were found to be positively inter-correlated, as was the case with the deviant workplace behaviour factors. The results confirmed that a negative correlation exists between character strengths, in particular self-control and integrity, and the propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour, implying that the employees with stronger self-control and integrity are less likely to engage in deviant workplace behaviour. In addition, the findings of the study showed that employees in general consider themselves to have stronger character strengths and a lower propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour than that which they perceive their colleagues to have. Significant differences between the self-report and non-self-report measures were evidenced. The study has clear practical significance for organisations, specifically the human resources divisions within organisations, and recruitment agencies, in terms of possible proxy measures to determine the propensity of job applicants to engage in deviant workplace behaviour.

Key words: ethics, deviant workplace behaviour, self-control, integrity, character strength, self-report measures, non-self-report measures

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the research problem

Over the past years there has been an increase in the occurrence of *deviant workplace behaviour* in the United States of America (USA): an estimated 33% to 75% of all employees have engaged in behaviours such as vandalism, sabotage, fraud, theft, and voluntary absenteeism (Harper, 1990; Jones, 2009). In 2008-2009 KPMG (an audit, tax and advisory firm) studied the perceptions of approximately 5, 000 employees in 13 different industries across the USA regarding misconduct and fraud in their organisations (Elliott, 2010). It was reported that three out of four employees observed misconduct in their organisation during the period of the study (Elliott, 2010).

The phenomenon of deviant workplace behaviour can have exorbitant financial implications for organisations (Appelbaum, Iaconi, & Matousek, 2007; Peterson, 2002; Stewart, Bing, Davison, Woehr, & McIntyre, 2009). Although difficult to determine accurately, the financial costs are estimated to be billions of dollars in the USA (Jones, 2009; Kidwell & Martin, 2005). Deviant workplace behaviour not only has negative consequences for the organisation but also for the individual who engages in such behaviour when and if exposed (cf. Appelbaum, Cottin, Paré, & Shapiro, 2006; Cowen & Marcel, 2011). Consequences for the individual can range from disciplinary hearings and dismissals to serious criminal charges, depending on the nature and extent of the behaviour or misconduct (cf. Appelbaum et al., 2006; Bernardi, 2001). These consequences are a function of the formal structures of the organisations such as strategies (e.g. disciplinary procedures), systems, policies and procedures as well as informal structures, for example informal communication in the organisation (cf. Kidwell & Martin, 2005; Trapp, 2011).

South Africa is not excluded from the phenomenon of deviant workplace behaviour, as evidenced by frequent newspaper reports of corruption and fraud committed by employees

and government officials. For example, South Africa's chief of police (Bheki Cele) was accused of spending taxpayer's money in an illegal manner (News24, 2011a); fraud and corruption by service providers and officials in the health-care industry has led to the loss of approximately R45 million by the Eastern Cape health department in the past few years (News24, 2011b); in the 2010/2011 annual police report it was stated that 476 police officers were charged with fraud, bribery, corruption, extortion, defeating the ends of justice, and aiding an escapee (News24, 2011c).

According to information presented at a theft and corruption summit held in South Africa by the National Bargaining Council in 2006 (Molwedi, 2006), it was reported that organisations who engage in business transactions with South African organisations were twice as likely to be defrauded when compared to their counterparts elsewhere in the world. Also, 83% of South African organisations reported cases of fraud in 2005 (Molwedi, 2006). An estimated loss of R40 billion per year was reported in 2006 as a result of white-collar crime (Molwedi, 2006).

The occurrence of deviant workplace behaviour in South Africa is not limited to fraud and corruption. With regard to absenteeism, a study conducted within a South African organisation (Du Plessis, Visser, & Fourie, 2003) indicated that a loss of 912 unplanned and 2,900 planned leave workdays within the organisation led to a financial loss of R895 054.55, of which 18.60% of the unplanned leave taken was accounted for by only five employees.

It is thus clear that deviant workplace behaviour not only has tremendous financial implications for organisations (Du Plessis et al., 2003; Elliott, 2010; Jones, 2009), but also impacts negatively on the reputation of the organisation, which ultimately affects its stakeholders (e.g. clients, customers, supervisors, and co-workers), (cf. Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2010; Kaptein, 2010) and the broader society (Van Vuuren, 2008). Given the fact that deviant workplace behaviour negatively affects the organisation and/or its stakeholders

either financially or through the damage to organisational reputation (cf. Bayram, Gursakal, & Bilgel, 2009), the question arises as to what factors besides greed (Elliott, 2010) motivate employees to engage in these behaviours. Possible antecedents have been identified as being at the macro-contextual level, organisational level and personal level.

At the macro-contextual level corruption has been identified as a form of deviant behaviour that could have a serious impact on the reputation of a country (Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2010). This ultimately impacts on investors, both local and foreign, in such a way that they would be less likely to invest their capital in the country. As a result challenges arise for organisations to remain competitive and conduct business transactions of an ethical nature (cf. Halter & Coutinho de Aruda, 2009; Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2010).

Factors such as organisational culture (Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005; Marta, Singhapakdi, & Higgs-Kleyn, 2001), an ineffective manager or deviant role model (Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005; Kermis & Kermis, 2009; Sims, 1992; Sims & Brinkmann, 2003), and the informal and formal intentions implemented in the organisation in order to create an ethical culture (Belak & Milfelner, 2011; Kaptein, 2010; Trapp, 2011) can be seen as possible organisational antecedents of deviant workplace behaviour. Further organisational antecedents could present in the form of group norms (O'Boyle, Forsyth, & O'Boyle, 2011; Mikulay, Neuman, & Finkelstein, 2001), and the risk of being caught (Blanchard & Henle, 2008; Urgin, Pearson, & Odom, 2007).

A great deal of research effort has been expended to identify personal antecedents of deviant workplace behaviour, some of which are individual's attitude toward the organisation, commitment to the organisation, and job satisfaction (Sims, 2002), and demographic factors such as gender (Douglas & Martinko, 2001; Roxas & Stoneback, 2004). Also included as personal antecedents of deviant workplace behaviour are different personality types, such as type A and B (Elliot, 2010), personality traits (e.g. hedonism and

narcissism) (Blickle, Schlegel, Fassbender, & Klein, 2006), locus of control (either internal or external) (Martinko, Gundlach, & Douglas, 2002; Martinko, Douglas, Harvey, & Joseph, 2005; Storms & Spector, 1987) and *self-control* (Blickle et al., 2006; Restubog, Garcia, Wang, & Cheng, 2010; Marcus, Schuler, Quell, & Hümpfner, 2002).

It is clear that past research have focused on many different macro-contextual, organisational, and personal antecedents of deviant workplace behaviour. However, for the purpose of this study it was decided to rather focus on two specific aspects that are closely related to an individual's personal qualities in more detail instead of many different antecedents of deviant workplace behaviour that are often influenced by external factors. Self-control and integrity was found to be two of the prominent personal antecedents of deviant workplace behaviour in past research and for this reason the focus was placed on measuring these two constructs in relation to deviant workplace behaviour in the South African context.

Self-control is considered by some researchers as a personality trait (Restubog, et al., 2010; Turner & Piquero, 2002) or a personality construct (Marcus et al., 2002; Turner & Piquero, 2002), whereas other researchers classify self-control as a personal characteristic (Polakowski, 1994) or a character strength (Park, Peterson, & Seligman, 2004). Another personal antecedent of deviant workplace behaviour that is classified as a character strength, is *integrity* (Peterson & Seligman, 2004a). A great deal of research has been conducted with respect to integrity as a personal antecedent to deviant workplace behaviour (Lucas & Friedrich, 2005; Martin, Rao, & Sloan, 2009; Mikulay et al., 2001; Marcus et al., 2002).

As far as integrity is concerned, Cullen and Sackett (2004, as cited in Barnard, Schurink, & De Beer, 2008, p.40) noted that the extreme multidimensional conceptualisations of the construct of integrity have been used as a basis in the development of integrity measurements. Apart from a character strength (Peterson & Seligman, 2004a), integrity has

been considered to be an attitude, a personality characteristic and a value (Cullen & Sackett, 2004 as cited in Barnard et al., 2008, p.40). Despite the broad research conducted on the concept of integrity, many researchers are of the opinion that the construct remains either too broad or too vague and ill-defined, clearly indicating the lack of clarity regarding the construct (Barnard et al., 2008; Becker, 1998; Fourie, 2005). Regardless of the lack of consensus related to the specific classification of self-control and integrity, both these constructs have been researched in relation to deviant workplace behaviour. These studies have been mainly conducted in economically developed countries such as the USA and Germany with a prominent focus on self-control and integrity as personality characteristics, personality traits, or personal values or characteristics (Marcus et al., 2002; Martin, et al., 2009; Mikulay et al., 2001). A dearth of research exists with regard to self-control and integrity as character strengths, specifically in relation to deviant workplace behaviour. Thus, for the purpose of this study it was decided to measure self-control and integrity as character strengths.

1.2 Research problem and objectives

Despite research conducted in developed countries there seems to be a paucity of research with regard to the relationship between character strengths (self-control and integrity) and deviant workplace behaviour in economically developing countries such as South Africa. Economically developed countries are generally characterised by aspects such as higher living standards, stronger currencies, and more developed banking and financial institutions than in developing countries (Jha, 2003), as well as fast innovation, diffusion of technology and new ideas, and open trade and investment policies (Cherunilam, 2008). Developing countries, on the other hand, are generally characterised by poverty, a lack in basic labour, skills and education, ineffective infrastructure, a high dependence on the private sector, low household incomes, savings and investment, and low volume of trade per capita

(Cherunilam, 2008). Developing countries generally do not have ethical or legal structures in place to provide the necessary protection to their citizens (Carroll & Buchholtz, 2011). The question thus arises as to whether the propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour, and its relationship with self-control and integrity, is different in developing countries from that in developed countries.

In order to answer this question, the main objective of this research is to establish whether a relationship exists between self-control and integrity as identified character strengths (Peterson & Seligman, 2004a), and employees' propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour within the developing economic context of South Africa.

1.3 Research design

A quantitative research strategy in the form of a cross-sectional survey of employees working within organisations was conducted in order to measure the propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour and the relationship thereof with self-control and integrity. Both a self-report and a non-self-report measure were used for the Self-control and Integrity Subscales, as developed by Peterson and Seligman (2004b). With regard to the Deviant Workplace Behaviour Scale used, an adapted version of both a self-report measure of workplace deviance as developed by Bennett and Robinson (2000), and a non-self-report measure of workplace deviance as developed by Stewart et al.(2009) was included. The use of both self-report and non-self-report measures enabled employees to report on their own self-control, integrity and deviant workplace behaviour as well as their perceptions regarding the self-control, integrity and deviant workplace behaviour of their *colleagues*. All research efforts in this study were conducted in an ethical manner to ensure that no harm was caused to any party. Participants voluntarily participated in this study, were assured of anonymity and confidentiality, and were able to withdraw from the research process at any given moment.

1.4 Potential contribution

The findings of this research could possibly contribute to informing organisations, particularly their human resource management divisions, and recruitment agencies, not only of the phenomena of deviant workplace behaviour and its antecedents, but also of the possible value in using measures that could predict the propensity of employees to engage in deviant workplace behaviour. When utilising such measures in order to determine the propensity of employees to engage in such behaviour, organisations and recruitment agencies could thus employ individuals who would be less inclined to engage in deviant workplace behaviour. With regard to the relationship established between self-control and integrity as character strengths, and deviant workplace behaviour, the findings of this study could possibly contribute toward the motivation for future academic research. Future research could be directed toward identifying possible antecedents other than self-control and integrity of deviant workplace behaviour.

Since internationally developed measurements for both the character strengths (self-control and integrity) and deviant workplace behaviour were used in this study, the findings could also encourage the development of measurements specific to the South African context. By using measurements that are particularly developed for the South African population, the results could possibly be more reliable. The significant differences reported in results between how individuals perceive themselves (*self*) and how they perceive their *colleagues* when using self-report versus non-self-report measures in researching constructs of a sensitive nature can also be valuable. These results could inform academic researchers of the necessity to utilise either non-self-report measures, or both self-report and non-self-report measures when conducting research of a sensitive nature.

1.5 Chapter layout

The establishment of self-control and integrity as possible antecedents of deviant workplace behaviour in the South African context will be discussed in the chapters to follow.

The chapter layout is shown in table 1.

Table 1

Chapter Layout

Chapter	Heading	Content
1	Introduction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Background to research problem • Research problem or questions are introduced • Research design • Potential contribution of study • Chapter layout
2	Literature study	<p>In-depth discussion and overview of previous research conducted within the domain of deviant workplace behaviour in relation to its antecedents is provided:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The notion of deviant workplace behaviour is defined • Typologies of workplace deviance are discussed • Deviant workplace behaviour and its relationship with ethics • Research findings of deviant workplace behaviour on a macro-contextual, organisational and personal level are reported • Research findings with regard to the relationship between deviant workplace behaviour and self-control and integrity are discussed
3	Research design	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Specific research question is stated • Research paradigm together with the methodology is presented, including: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ Sampling strategy, research procedure, measuring instrument and data analysis ◦ Ethical considerations
4	Results	<p>Detailed discussion of the findings and results of the research study:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The sample is described • The factor analysis of Character Strength Scales and the Deviant Workplace Behaviour Scale is discussed • Description of Pearson correlations between the character strength factors and the deviant workplace behaviour factors of both the employees (<i>self</i>) and their perceptions of their <i>colleagues</i> are provided • Differences in self-report and non-self-report measures of deviant workplace behaviour, self-control and integrity are discussed
5	Discussion, recommendations and conclusion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduction to the chapter • Research overview • Discussion of research findings • Main findings • Recommendations for future research • Recommendations for specific stakeholders • Limitations • Final thoughts

CHAPTER 2: DEVIANT WORKPLACE BEHAVIOUR AND ANTECEDENTS

2.1 Introduction

This chapter commences with a clear description of the notion of deviant workplace behaviour. This is followed by the typologies of deviant workplace behaviour and its relationship to ethics. The chapter will focus on particular research findings from previous research conducted in relation to the antecedents of deviant workplace behaviour on a macro-contextual, organisational and personal level, as well as the particular relationship that exists between deviant workplace behaviour and self-control and integrity.

2.2 Defining deviant workplace behaviour

When considering the reported cases on fraud, corruption and unethical behaviour in South Africa and across the rest of the world, it is not surprising that deviant workplace behaviour has progressively become a prominent area of investigation by industrial and organisational psychologists and academic researchers (Ones, Viswesvaran, & Schmidt, 1993; Peterson, 2002; Stewart et al., 2009). Deviant workplace behaviour is often used as a collective term (Appelbaum et al., 2007; Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2010) for what is named by different authors as workplace deviance (Robinson & Bennett, 1995), organisational misbehaviour (Vardi, 2001) organisational antisocial behaviour (Kidwell & Martin, 2005; Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2010), counterproductive behaviour (Kelloway, Francis, Prosser, & Cameron, 2010; Marcus et al., 2002), and dysfunctional behaviour (Kidwell & Martin, 2005). However, Kidwell and Martin (2005) have identified possible differences between these various terms for deviant workplace behaviour.

Workplace deviance is seen as voluntary acts that break the primary organisational norms and threaten the welfare of the organisation, its members, or both (Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Kidwell & Martin, 2005). These behaviours can be divided into four types, namely, property deviance (stealing or abusing organisational property), production

deviance(damaging quality and quantity of work) (Hollinger & Clark, 1982), political deviance (spreading rumours and badmouthing others), and personal aggression (acting hostilely or violently towards others) (Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Kidwell & Martin, 2005). Antisocial behaviour is focused on causing harm to the organisation or its stakeholders through interpersonal violence, sexual harassment, sabotage or workplace aggression (Kidwell & Martin, 2005). Counterproductive behaviour can be defined as “intentional employee behaviour that is harmful to the legitimate interests of an organisation” (Dalal, 2005) and refers to poor quality of work, absenteeism and misuse of information, sabotage, theft and property destruction (Hung, Chi, & Lu, 2009; Kidwell & Martin, 2005; Martinko et al., 2002).

Dysfunctional behaviour is behaviour that causes negative consequences for a group of individuals, or an individual in the organisation, and/or the organisation itself (Kidwell & Martin, 2005). There are two general categories of dysfunctional behaviour, the first being violent and deviant (e.g. aggression, sabotage and terrorism), and the second nonviolent dysfunctional (e.g. alcohol and drug abuse, absenteeism, theft, and revenge) (Kidwell & Martin, 2005; Martinko et al., 2002). Organisational misbehaviour is “a deliberate act by organisational members that violates basic organisational and/or societal norms” (Kidwell & Martin, 2005, p.5). Such behaviour could include time-wasting, absenteeism, or sexual harassment, and is viewed by some authors as unavoidable outcomes of conflict between employees and managers, but also as a result of class tension (Ackroyd & Thompson, 1999 as cited in Kidwell & Martin, 2005, p.5).

It is noted that these various terms relating to deviant workplace behaviour encompass overlapping behavioural domains (cf. Jones, 2009), for example, theft has been categorised as counterproductive behaviour (Kelloway et al., 2010; Martinko et al., 2002), dysfunctional behaviour (Kidwell & Martin, 2005), and workplace deviance (Robinson & Bennett, 1995),

whereas sabotage is seen as anti-social behaviour by some (Kidwell & Martin, 2005) and as counterproductive behaviour by others (Martinko et al., 2002). Kelloway et al. (2010) have referred to dysfunctional behaviour and counterproductive behaviour as similar constructs. Counterproductive behaviour has also been described as being property-based, or production-based, or related to all four types of deviant workplace behaviour (property, production, political, and personal aggression) (Kelloway et al., 2010; Mikulay et al., 2001).

Irrespective of the label assigned to these types of behaviour or the ambiguity that exists regarding the categorisation of the behavioural domains, the central theme appears to be similar in that intentional harm is caused in some way or other and has negative consequences on the organisation and/or its members and other organisation stakeholders (cf. Bayram et al., 2009; Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2010). For the purpose of this research study, the term that will be used when referring to studies in which similar behavioural domains have been researched, will be 'deviant workplace behaviour', the reason being that the different behavioural domains can all be categorised within one of the four typologies of deviant workplace behaviour. Therefore, the following definition for deviant workplace behaviour applies: "...voluntary behaviour that violates significant organisational norms and in so doing threatens the well-being of the organisation, its members, or both" (Robinson & Bennett, 1995, p. 556).

2.3 Typologies of deviant workplace behaviour

Hollinger and Clark (1982) developed a two-typology of deviant workplace behaviour, namely, property deviance and production deviance. Property deviance refers to damage to tangible organisational property or assets, which includes theft of company property, sabotaging of equipment, and fraud (Hollinger & Clark, 1982; Peterson, 2002; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Production deviance "...concerns not the physical property of the organisation, but rather behaviour which violates the formally proscribed norms

delineating the quality and quantity of work to be accomplished...” (Hollinger & Clark, 1982, p. 98). Examples of such behaviour relate to absenteeism (Du Plessis et al., 2003; Robinson & Bennett, 1995), wasting of resources, intentionally working at a slow pace, setting unrealistic expectations concerning product performance, and use of alcohol and drugs while working (Hollinger & Clark, 1982; Litzky, Eddleston, & Kidder, 2006; Mastrangelo, Everton, & Jolton, 2006; Ugrin et al., 2007).

Robinson and Bennett (1995) added political and personal deviance to the existing typology of Hollinger and Clark. Political deviance refers to “...engagement in social interaction that puts other individuals at a personal or political disadvantage” (Robinson & Bennett, 1995, p. 566) and involves favouritism, gossiping, and compromising company secrets (De Gouveia, Van Vuuren, & Crafford, 2005; Litzky et al., 2006). Personal deviance, also defined by Robinson and Bennett (1995) as personal aggression, includes behaving in a hostile or aggressive manner towards other individuals through verbal abuse, sexual harassment, threats of physical harm, bullying, and aggressive or violent workplace behaviour (Bulutlar & Öz, 2008; Litzky et al., 2006; Martinko et al., 2005).

Not only have Robinson and Bennett (1995) added political and personal deviance to the existing property and production deviance (Hollinger & Clark, 1982), they also categorised these four typologies into two dimensions. The first dimension, interpersonal deviance, includes behaviours directed toward individuals. Interpersonal deviance thus encompasses both political and personal deviance. The second dimension, organisational deviance, is deviance directed toward the organisation and thus encompasses both property and production deviance (Litzky et al., 2006; Peterson, 2002). Regardless of whether the behavioural domains are categorised under the first or second dimension, the question arises as to whether or not these behaviours could be seen as unethical.

2.4 Deviant workplace behaviour and ethics

Ethics are focused on what is right and what is wrong when judged in terms of the law, societal guidelines, the morality of behaviour, and justice. Ethics can be defined as what is good for others while simultaneously considering what is good for oneself (Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2010). Deviant workplace behaviour, by its very definition, “voluntary behaviour that violates significant organisational norms and in so doing threatens the well-being of the organisation, its members, or both” (Robinson & Bennett, 1995, p. 556), implies that deviant workplace behaviour is not good for ‘the other’. In this regard, ‘the other’ is either the organisation or its stakeholders (e.g. employees, clients or customers) and broader society (cf. Van Vuuren, 2008).

Although deviant workplace behaviour is generally seen as negative behaviour (cf. Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2010), some researchers are of the opinion that deviant workplace behaviour is somewhat ambiguous in terms of whether it could be defined as beneficial or harmful, since it strongly depends on the situation and the organisational or societal norms (Kidwell & Martin, 2005; Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2003). Deviant workplace behaviour that is classified as beneficial is generally referred to as positive deviance (Appelbaum et al., 2007; Crane & Platow, 2010; Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2003). Examples thereof are whistle-blowing, organisational disagreement and original thinking associated with organisational change, and criticism of incompetent supervisors (Appelbaum et al., 2007; Kidwell & Martin, 2005; Vardi & Wiener, 1996).

More specifically, positive deviance is defined as “...intentional behaviours that depart from the norms of a referent group in honourable ways” (Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2003, p.209). The referent group in this case includes organisational, unit, and business norms (Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2003). Although positive deviant acts also require intentional departure from norms, as with negative deviant workplace behaviour it is not

guaranteed that such positive behaviour would necessarily lead to the efficient functioning of an organisation (Appelbaum et al., 2007). However, in some cases, positive deviant actions could assist the organisation in changing their common business norms and prepare them to be more effective in the future (Appelbaum et al., 2007; Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2003). The more organisational members positively deviate from organisational practices (e.g. whistleblowing), the greater is the possibility for that positive behaviour to become the organisational norm (Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2003) and change the business practice of the organisation to be more ethical. It could thus be inferred that positive deviance could be classified as ethical behaviour and good business practice within organisations, and negative deviant workplace behaviour could be considered as unethical behaviour.

Just as unethical behaviour is not necessarily illegal (cf. Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2010), not all deviant workplace behaviours are illegal. Gossiping, the spreading of malicious rumours, bullying or badmouthing is unethical but not illegal. In contrast, deviant workplace behaviour such as theft or fraud is both unethical and illegal (cf. Blickle et al., 2006; Elliot, 2010; Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2010). However, for the purpose of this study, the focus will be on negative deviant workplace behaviour that is seen as unethical in nature. Numerous research studies have been conducted to identify antecedents of deviant workplace behaviour (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Hastings & O'Neill, 2009; Mikulay et al., 2001; Peterson, 2002; Stewart et al., 2009) at the macro-contextual level, organisational level, and personal level. These antecedents will now be discussed.

2.5 Macro-contextual antecedents of deviant workplace behaviour

The macro-contextual antecedents of deviant workplace behaviour refer to the broader society and social norms in which organisations operate (Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2010). It could be argued that deviant workplace behaviour on a contextual level is also related to the argument of 'bad apples' and 'bad barrels' (Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2010; Treviño &

Youngblood, 1990). ‘Bad apples’ refers to individuals with unethical moral character who conduct unethical behaviour within the organisation. ‘Bad barrels’ refers to unethical organisations that in turn influence individuals to act in unethical ways (Treviño & Youngblood, 1990). Since organisations do not exist in isolation, all organisational practices have an impact on the broader society and for this reason Rossouw and Van Vuuren (2010) introduced the notion of the ‘warehouse’ in which the barrels and apples function.

The ‘warehouse’, or differently stated, the society in which organisations function, influences the perception of a country by business people and potential investors. The reputation that a country has as a whole might determine the likelihood of investors investing in that particular country (cf. Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2010; Sanjay & Portes, 2010). Investors are often attracted to an organisation because of its positive reputation, which would ultimately lead to a decrease in capital costs, and an enhancement of the organisation’s ability to remain competitive (Halter & Countinho de Arruda, 2009).

Ethical investment funds have become a trend for investors, indicating that investors are better informed than they used to be (Halter & Countinho de Arruda, 2009). The United Nation’s *Principles for Responsible Investment* are one of the initiatives prompting investors to consider issues related to social, environmental, and corporate governance when considering investing their capital (Sanjay & Portes, 2010). Governments in developed countries might increase the costs of conducting business in countries that are characterised as corrupt (Sanjay & Portes, 2010). Stakeholders and consumers are also raising their concerns regarding the unethical practices in commercialisation and production and would, for instance, not support production practices where the environment is harmed or child labour is involved in the production chain (Halter & Countinho de Arruda, 2009). These unethical practices would possibly have a negative impact on the reputation of a country.

When a country has a questionable reputation, investors are less likely to invest their capital in that country (cf. Sanjay & Portes, 2010; Voyer & Beamish, 2004). In addition, business people of questionable integrity might be attracted, which could cause more damage and lead to the country being labelled as untrustworthy (Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2010). In countries that are labelled untrustworthy, corruption may become endemic (Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2010).

Corruption can be understood “...an improper use of resources, such as bribery or facilitating payments, nepotism, extortion, use of privileged information, or fraud, among other practices” (Halter & Coutinho de Arruda, 2009, p. 267). There are numerous causes of corruption, ranging across economic, political, legal, cultural, moral, and socio-economic aspects (Woods, 2010). High levels of corruption have numerous negative consequences, such as a decrease in employment levels, the misallocation of resources, damage to international trade, and a decrease in foreign direct investment (FDI) (Fabayo, Posu, & Obisanya, 2011; Sanjay & Portes, 2010; Woods, 2010). The country’s international reputation could be damaged and public trust in the country could be lost, which in turn would impact on social responsibility. The discouragement of investment and public access to services such as infrastructure and education could also be deterred (Oyewobi, Ganiyu, Oke, Ola-Awo, & Shittu, 2011; Woods, 2010).

Corruption has become a serious problem in recent times, not only in South Africa, but across the rest of the world (Woods, 2010). Available statistics that measure the levels of corruption indicate that they are unusually high and are strongly on the rise in many countries (Woods, 2010). Corruption has high financial, social, legal, and ethical costs, including the creation of an environment or climate that favours corruption and causes a loss in reputation (Halter & Coutinho de Arruda, 2009). Voyer and Beamish (2004) found that corruption

serves to reduce FDI in emerging nations, since few all-inclusive regulatory and legal frameworks exist that can effectively inhibit fraudulent activities and corruption.

From an economic perspective, a country's reputation reflects the joint reputation of its key individuals and other economic players, such as organisations (Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2010). Not only can society (warehouse) corrupt organisations (barrels) in countries, but the inverse is also possible, in that organisations and business can contribute toward either corrupting or rectifying the moral character of society (Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2010). For this reason it is important to consider the organisational antecedents of deviant workplace behaviour that could possibly contribute to the loss of reputation in organisations and impact negatively on society.

2.6 Organisational antecedents of deviant workplace behaviour

At the organisational level, many specific factors can contribute to deviant workplace behaviour, such as the organisational culture. Wiener and Vardi (1990) define organisational culture as shared values within a system, by which normative pressures of the organisation and its members are produced. Edgar Schein defines organisational culture as "...a pattern of basic assumptions, invented, discovered, or developed by a given group, as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore is to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems" (Schein, 1990, p. 111). Thus, organisational culture influences individuals to think and act in a particular manner, which in turn impacts on their ethical decision-making (Appelbaum, Deguire, & Lay, 2005; Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005; Caldwell & Moberg, 2007; Marta et al., 2001; Valentine & Barnett, 2003).

Organisational cultures of an ethical nature promote ethical decision-making, while organisations with an unethical nature promote unethical behaviour (Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005). Once employees have gained knowledge regarding the proper manner in which to

behave, through formal and informal socialisation within organisations, they will be able to learn which values are appreciated, approved, and rewarded (Appelbaum et al., 2005; Treviño & Brown, 2005). Thus, organisational culture impacts on the behaviour of individuals at all levels of organisational life (Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005).

Organisational culture is often described as “the way we do things around here” (Hunt & Vasquez-Parraga, 1993; Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2010, p. 127), while ethical culture could be described as “the way we do things around here even when no one is watching” (Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2010, p. 127). An organisation could be characterised as having an ethical culture when ethical decision-making is encouraged and ethical behaviour rewarded; there is zero tolerance for unethical behaviour; stakeholders trust the organisation and perceive it to be transparent, ethical, fair and accountable (Van Vuuren, 2008); ethical matters are discussed spontaneously throughout the organisation; there is ethical human resource management; and ethical role models are present in different key positions in the organisation (cf. Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2010).

In the same way that some organisations could be characterised as having an ethical culture, other organisations could also be characterised as having an unethical culture. Unethical cultures can influence and shape leaders (Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2010) in such a way that would encourage engagement in deviant workplace behaviour (Appelbaum & Shapiro, 2006; Sims, 1992). These organisations are often referred to as toxic organisations and might require employees to be deceitful or dishonest in order to achieve organisational success. These toxic organisations are characterised by poor decision-making, poor performance, employee stress and high levels of dissatisfaction among employees (Appelbaum & Shapiro, 2006; Sims, 1992).

Furthermore, the values of such organisations are often unclear and remain unmonitored; thus behaviour that is in conflict with these organisational values might be

rewarded (cf. Ferrell, Fraedrich, & Ferrell, 2008). When employees are employed by organisations with toxic or unethical cultures, the likelihood of their engaging in deviant workplace behaviour (e.g. fraud, violence, sabotage and theft) increases (Kermis & Kermis, 2009). Toxic organisations create high levels of distress and cause the organisational efficiency to decrease in the long term (Appelbaum & Shapiro, 2006).

Not only can an unethical organisational culture influence employees to engage in deviant workplace behaviour, but an ineffective manager or deviant role model can also contribute to the development of a deceitful employee engaging in acts of negative workplace deviance (Appelbaum et al., 2005; Sims, 1992). Employees often have the tendency to perceive leaders in the organisation as role models and as a result, attempt to imitate their behaviour (Sims & Brinkmann, 2003). Social learning theory proposes that individuals in a group within the organisation will be influenced by a deviant role model to take part in deviant workplace behaviour (Appelbaum et al., 2005). Leaders in an organisation thus have a crucial role to fulfil in the development of a pervasive and sustainable ethical culture within an organisation (cf. Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2010).

Senior managers in particular set the ethical tone for an organisation through their actions and interactions with others (Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005; Kermis & Kermis, 2009). Leaders can create an ethical organisation through the manner in which they behave, focus their attention, assign rewards, employ and dismiss employees (Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005; Sims & Brinkmann, 2003) and set standards within the organisation (Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005; Tenbrunsel, Wade-Benzoni, Messick, & Bazerman, 2000). Further ways, other than organisational culture and leadership, in which the ethical culture of an organisation can be established is through informal and formal intention (Kaptein, 2010).

Informal intention refers to aspects such as *clarity*, which is defined as “...the extent to which ethical expectations, for instance values, norms, and rules, are concrete,

comprehensive and understandable to managers and employees” (Kaptein, 2010, p. 602) *transparency*, which is “...the extent to which ethical and unethical behaviour and its consequences are visible to those managers and employees who can act upon it” (Kaptein, 2010, p. 602). Further informal aspects might include ethics as part of the informal conversation in the organisation, and reward and penalty systems (cf. Belak & Milfelner, 2011; Trapp, 2011). Formal intention, which is the ethics programme in an organisation, comprises the following components: a code of ethics; ethics committee; ethics office or ethics compliance officer; ethics hotline; policies to hold employees and management accountable for unethical behaviour and reward ethical behaviour; ethics audits and internal monitoring systems; and ethics training programmes (Belak & Milfelner, 2011; Kaptein, 2010; Kermis & Kermis, 2009).

Mikulay et al. (2001) suggested additional factors that relate to the probability of deviant workplace behaviour occurring in the workplace on an organisational level, for instance, group norms and risk factors. Group norms reflect the subjective norms, but also the group members’ perceptions regarding the acceptability of certain behaviour (Mikulay et al., 2001). “Norms are consensual standards that describe what behaviours should and should not be performed in a given context. They are conceptualised as social structures that exist independently from the individuals who are members of the collective” (O’Boyle et al., 2011, p. 47).

Certain organisations or groups in the organisation might be more tolerant of deviant workplace behaviour than other organisations. This does not imply that they actively encourage such behaviour, but rather that they are less strict than other organisations to penalise or act against deviant workplace behaviour (Mikulay et al., 2001). Findings present that employees are more likely to engage in deviant workplace behaviour such as cyber-loafing or some form of internet misuse when a perception exists that other individuals in the

organisation do the same (Blanchard & Henle, 2008). Crane and Platow (2010) found that individuals with strong identification with the in-group in the organisation deviate from the descriptive group norms (i.e. actual group behaviour), when such norms violate injunctive group norms (i.e. when behaviour from other members in the group violates the perceptions of the target members of how the group should be). Thus highly identified group members are more likely to remain loyal to injunctive group norms, and will do so even if deviation from descriptive norms is required.

The perceived risk associated with the behaviour, in conjunction with group norms, plays a role in the individual's decision-making process (cf. Blanchard & Henle, 2008; Mikulay et al., 2001). The risk refers to the likelihood of being caught engaging in the deviant workplace behaviour (Mikulay et al., 2001). Employees who worked in an environment in which deviant workplace behaviour was less likely to be discovered and penalised presented an increased probability of engaging in deviant workplace behaviour (cf. Mikulay et al., 2001). The perceived risk of engaging in deviant workplace behaviour has been found to be higher at senior level in organisations, since these individuals have more to lose (Urgin et al., 2007). Blanchard and Henle (2008) argue that employees who fear being caught would be less likely to engage in serious cyber-loafing.

Further organisational factors that could possibly cause employee deviance refer to organisational frustration, job stressors, weak sanctions for rule violations, lack of control over the work environment and organisational changes such as downsizing (Henle, 2005). Appelbaum et al. (2007) identified tenure as an additional factor leading to deviant workplace behaviour, and found that employees with less tenure are more likely to commit property deviance. Not only have these different organisational antecedents been found to impact on the propensity of individuals to engage in deviant workplace behaviour, but numerous

personal antecedents have also been identified (Blickle et al., 2006; Elliot, 2010; Henle, 2005; McCabe, Ingram, & Dato-on, 2006; Roxas & Stoneback, 2004).

2.7 Personal antecedents of deviant workplace behaviour

Personal antecedents to deviant workplace behaviour can be categorised into individual attitudes toward the organisation (Mikulay et al., 2001), commitment and job satisfaction (Sims, 2002), demographic factors, such as gender (Douglas & Martinko, 2001; Martinko et al., 2005; Roxas & Stoneback, 2004), personality characteristics, such as type A personality (Elliot, 2010), personality traits, such as locus of control and self-control (Douglas et al., 2008; Martinko et al., 2002; Restubog et al., 2010) and lastly, personal values or character strengths, such as integrity (Halter & Coutinho de Arunda, 2009; Kurtz, 2010-11; Valentine & Barnett, 2003).

Individuals' attitudes to specific behaviour play a role in their propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour since it refers to their evaluation of the situation as favourable or unfavourable (Mikulay et al., 2001). Moreover, their attitudes toward the organisation play a role, for instance, their commitment to the organisation. Sims (2002) has found a relationship between deviant workplace behaviour and job satisfaction, loyalty and organisational commitment. For example, in cases where participants reported high levels of job satisfaction, they in turn reported lower levels of the probability to be part of ethics rule-breaking in the organisation. Individuals who are more loyal and attached to their organisation or job are more likely to abide by the rules of the organisation and make ethical decisions (Sims, 2002). Furthermore, employees who show strong commitment to their organisation are also least likely to quit their jobs, or withhold effort in the workplace (Sims, 2002).

As far as biographical antecedents are concerned, McCabe et al. (2006) examined the relationship between business ethics and gender. They found no difference in the perceptions

of ethics between men and women when gender alone was taken into account. However, in cases where the relationship between gender and individual ethical factors was examined, it was argued that men accept bribery (as a form of deviant behaviour) as more ethical than women perceive it to be. Gender has also been related to aggressive behaviour as a form of deviant workplace behaviour in that it is expected that males are likely to respond aggressively or make hostile attributions to negative outcomes more easily than is the case with females (Douglas & Martinko, 2001; Martinko et al., 2005).

In a study conducted by Roxas and Stoneback (2004), the importance of gender across cultures in ethical decision-making was examined. It was reported that in most countries males were less ethical than females. However, in China the opposite was found to be true. Furthermore, they established that there appeared to be some differences in ethical decision-making across different countries. Not only do individuals' gender and cultural aspects have an impact on their propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour, but also, in some cases, different types of personalities and personality traits.

Henle (2005) identified a predictor of deviant workplace behaviour, namely person-based perspective, which indicates that it is not the environment that influences the individual to partake in deviant workplace behaviour, but rather their personality. In contrast, Robinson and Greenberg (1998) reported that the significant proportion of variance in deviant workplace behaviour is not predicted by personality variables alone. Rather, as established by earlier research (Treviño & Youngblood, 1990), it is more likely that a combination of the nature of the workplace situation and personality variables best predict deviant workplace behaviour. According to Elliot (2010) current data at the time and small research efforts indicated that certain personality traits are more evident in economic crimes such as fraudulent acts and embezzlement, than in other personality traits. Elliot (2010) also established that a relationship exists between individuals with type A personalities and

deviant workplace behaviour. Type A individuals are commonly concerned with achievement and are seen as competitive (Carducci & Wong, 1998) and being more prone to take risks than individuals with type B personalities (Carducci & Wong, 1998; Henle, 2005).

In addition to type A/B personalities relating to deviant workplace behaviour, Conscientiousness as one of the Big Five personality traits have been related to deviant workplace behaviour (Blickle et al., 2006; Elliot, 2010). Conscientiousness refers to "...high levels of thoughtfulness, with good impulse control and goal-directed behaviours" (Elliot, 2010, p. 273). Hastings and O'Neill (2009) indicated that Conscientiousness predicts deviance among university students, while Blickle et al. (2006) established that criminals guilty of white-collar crime present higher levels of Conscientiousness than that of white-collar managers.

Hedonism and narcissism have proved to be related to deviant workplace behaviour. People who are referred to as hedonists are "people for whom material things and enjoyment generally possess a high value..." (Blickle et al., 2006, p. 222). One of the many causes of hedonism refers to living in a culture which highly values individual wealth and material success. Narcissism can be viewed as having a lack of empathy, being grandiose and in need of constant admiration (Blickle et al., 2006). It has been reported that white-collar criminals are more hedonistic and narcissistic than non-criminal managers (Blickle et al., 2006). It can therefore be concluded that the more enjoyment and pleasure managers seek in their lives, the greater the likelihood of their not being able to resist engaging in deviant workplace behaviour when the opportunity presents itself.

Another personality-related characteristic, namely trait anger, has been associated with the propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour. Trait anger can be defined as the individual's internalised tendency to respond with anger in multiple situations, or to perceive such situations as frustrating or annoying (Hong & Giannakopoulos, 1994).

Martinko et al. (2005, p. 246) define trait anger as "...a person's stable tendency to experience state anger over time and in different situations." State anger refers to negative emotion that is temporarily experienced in response to a specific situation or event (Martinko et al., 2005). Individuals who appear to have a higher level of trait anger are more likely to engage in deviant workplace behaviour such as violent attacks directed towards other individuals (Parrott & Zeichner, 2003), as well as aggressive driving (Deffenbacher, Lynch, Oetting, & Yingling, 2001). In addition, a positive relationship has been established between trait anger and individuals engaging in deviant acts in the workplace (Restubog et al., 2010).

Locus of control has been classified as a personality trait related to deviant workplace behaviour. Locus of control refers to a "...generalised disposition to assign responsibility for outcomes, both positive and negative, to either environmental causes (external locus of control) or internal causes (internal locus of control)" (Martinko et al., 2002, p. 44). They perceive locus of control as a personality trait that influences individuals to make external or internal attributions (Martinko et al., 2002). Individuals with an internal locus of control are more likely to take responsibility for their own destiny. They are also expected to be biased toward internal attribution styles (Martinko et al., 2005). Earlier research (Storms & Spector, 1987) provided evidence that individuals with an external locus of control could be expected to respond to frustration through acting in a deviant manner more easily than those with an internal locus of control. In relation more specifically to organisational aggression, Perlow and Latham (1993) argued that individuals with higher levels of external locus of control were expected to treat clients abusively.

As mentioned previously, although many different personal antecedents of deviant workplace behaviour have been researched in the past, it was decided, for the purpose of this study, to rather focus on two specific aspects that are closely related to an individual's personal qualities in more detail instead of many different antecedents of deviant workplace

behaviour that are often influenced by external factors. Since self-control and integrity was found to be two of the prominent personal antecedents of deviant workplace behaviour in past research it was decided to focus on measuring these two constructs in relation to deviant workplace behaviour. These two constructs will henceforth be discussed.

2.7.1. Self-control as a personal antecedent of deviant workplace behaviour

Self-control has been defined as a general tendency of individuals to refrain from engaging in acts in which the long-term consequences surpass their momentary benefit (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990 as cited in Restubog et al., 2010). Restubog et al. (2010, p. 656) define self-control as “...the capacity to override one’s impulses and resist external influences...” Self-control or self-regulation as it is sometimes referred to (cf. Park et al., 2004; Peterson & Seligman, 2004a) has been identified by Peterson and Seligman (2004a, p. 500) as “...how a person exerts control over his or her own responses so as to pursue goals and live up to standards”. The responses refer to emotions, thoughts, performances, impulses, and other behaviours, while the standards include moral injunctions, performance targets, ideals, norms, and other people’s expectations (Peterson & Seligman, 2004a). Although self-control is sometimes used as a synonym for self-regulation, some authors tend to refer to self-control as the controlling of one’s impulses in order to perform in a moral manner (Peterson & Seligman, 2004a).

2.7.2. Past research findings of self-control in relation to deviant workplace behaviour

Numerous studies have been conducted with regard to the relationship between self-control and deviant workplace behaviour. Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, and Barrick (2004) verified that in the case where personality traits do not constrain the expression of deviant workplace behaviour, and when employees have unfavourable perceptions of the work situation, it is more likely that deviant workplace behaviour would occur. Evidence has been

presented (Restubog et al., 2010) that employees who portray high levels of self-control have the ability to control their desire to respond to anger, and therefore they are less likely to engage in deviant workplace behaviour. Douglas et al. (2008) stated that if it is assumed that individuals all have a certain tipping point where they would respond in an aggressive manner towards a trigger event or series of trigger events, it could be accepted that individuals with higher levels of self-control would present a higher threshold for engaging in aggressive behaviour.

Not only have different findings been presented in relation to self-control, but numerous researchers have also categorised self-control differently. Self-control has been categorised as a personality trait (Restubog et al., 2010; Polakowski, 1994; Turner & Piquero, 2002) or personal characteristic by some researchers (Marcus et al., 2002; Polakowski, 1994) and as a character strength by other researchers (Park et al., 2004; Peterson, & Seligman, 2004a). Irrespective of the many different definitions and categorisations of self-control, for the purpose of this study, self-control will be measured as a character strength using the IPIP-VIA Scales (Value in Action [VIA]) as developed by Peterson & Seligman (2004b) in order to determine the relationship between self-control and deviant workplace behaviour, and for this reason the following definition in relation to the scale will be used: “Self-regulation [self-control]: Regulating what one feels and does; being disciplined; controlling one’s appetites and emotions” (Park et al., 2004, p. 606).

2.7.3. Integrity as a personal antecedent of deviant workplace behaviour

Along with establishing the relationship between self-control and deviant workplace behaviour, the relationship between integrity as a personal antecedent to deviant workplace behaviour will also be established. Integrity can be seen as an ethical, personal or organisational value (cf. Halter & Coutinho de Arrunda, 2009; Palanski, Kahai, & Yammarino, 2011; Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2010). Values can be defined as a centrally

held, continuing belief by which judgements and actions are guided across particular situations and beyond instant goals to more definitive end-states of existence (Marta et al., 2001). Integrity has been more specifically identified as an ethical value along with, for example, transparency/honesty, consistency, respect, and fairness (cf. Palanski et al., 2011; Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2010). An advantage gained from adherence to the ethical values in an organisation, is that the internal and external stakeholders maintain good relationships with one another (Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2010).

Ethical values are a subset of values that can be categorised within the broader set of organisational values (Halter & Coutinho de Arrunda, 2009; Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2010). Differently stated, an ethical component is implied by values (Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2010). Therefore, ethical values have to do with values relating to human conduct and deal with what is 'right' and 'wrong' and enable an organisation to set normative standards for its employees (Halter & Coutinho de Arrunda, 2009; Valentine & Barnett, 2003). Kurtz (2010-11) states that should organisations encourage their own interests and not manage those interests appropriately, it might lead to deviant workplace behaviour and a loss of integrity. A profit-first culture and deterioration of integrity (as an organisational value) could lead to serious financial, societal and environmental damage (cf. Kurtz, 2010-11).

Not only are values important in an organisation with regard to acting ethically, they can also be seen as important in relation to the personal values of individuals and how these in turn can impact on the organisation and its ethical conduct. In this way, integrity has also been referred to as a personal value. The personal value of integrity is often closely aligned to ethics, to the extent that at times it is used as a substitute for ethics (Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2010) and has been defined as the moral character of an individual or even of an organisation. A person with integrity is seen as someone who abides by a set of ethical standards on a consistent basis (Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2010). Similarly, Yukl and Van

Fleet (1992 as cited in Becker, 1998), consider someone to have integrity when their behaviour is seen to be consistent with their values and that they are trustworthy and honest. Differently stated, integrity refers to acting in accordance with rational values. Stefano and Wasylyshyn (2005), define integrity as simply the ability to tell the truth.

According to Fourie (2005, p. 188) integrity is a "...complex and multi-faceted aspect consisting of an individual's personality". It has a psychological and behavioural basis, and might be considered to have an underlying psychodynamic basis as well. It is also a construct with a strong cognitive component, possibly related to pro-social behaviour. Furthermore, (Fourie, 2005) integrity reflects a tendency towards ethical behaviour and maintains a sound relation to others and is a construct that is observed within a specific context.

There is no agreed upon definition that exists for integrity, since it is a construct that has been identified as an ethical value or a personal value by some researchers (cf. Aswegen & Engelbrecht, 2009; Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2010; Stefano & Wasylyshyn, 2005) but also as a moral characteristic (cf. Aswegen & Engelbrecht, 2009; Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2010) a personality characteristic (Lau, Au, & Ho, 2003) and as a character strength (Peterson & Seligman, 2004a) by other researchers. However, for the purpose of this study, integrity will be measured along with self-control as a character strength with the use of an adapted version of the VIA Scale (Peterson & Seligman, 2004b). For this reason the following definition in relation to scale will apply: "Integrity [authenticity, honesty]: Speaking the truth but more broadly presenting oneself in a genuine way; being without pretence; taking responsibility for one's feelings and actions." (Park et al., 2004, p. 606).

2.7.4. Past research findings of integrity in relation to deviant workplace behaviour

Numerous studies have been conducted in relation to integrity. As noted, through the findings by Mikulay et al. (2001), an increase in the likelihood of engaging in deviant workplace behaviour was encountered when a decrease in the risk associated with the behaviour was presented. Regarding the possibility of employees engaging in deviant workplace behaviours such as theft, individuals who appeared to be relatively high in integrity were not affected by the variations in the environmental risk associated with the behaviour. In contrast, a lack of risk in certain situations enabled individuals low in integrity to engage in theft more effortlessly than would have been the case in situations associated with higher risk.

Martin et al. (2009) determined the impact of individual differences, (such as self-control and integrity), and plagiarism (as a form of cheating), in relation to deviant workplace behaviour. A strong negative relationship was found between the measurements of deviant workplace behaviour and individual differences, such as self-control and integrity. Thus it is expected that a person high in self-control or integrity would not likely engage in deviant workplace behaviour, or vice versa. In addition, a relationship has also been established between integrity and transformational leadership, which would ultimately lead to a more ethical organisation (Aswegen & Engelbrecht, 2009).

Substantial research has been conducted regarding the reliability and validity of integrity measurements (Casillas, Robbins, McKinniss, Postlethwaite, & Oh, 2009; Collins & Schmitt, 1993; Dalton & Metzger, 1993; Fallon, Avis, Kudisch, Gornet, & Frost, 2000; Hartnett & Terranova, 1991; Sackett & Harris, 1984). Ones et al. (1993) conducted a meta-analysis concerning the validities of integrity tests and reported that the tests' validities are significant predictors of particular deviant workplace behaviour such as absenteeism, theft,

and disciplinary problems. The results of a study conducted in Germany (Marcus et al., 2002) indicated that the closest relationship with deviant workplace behaviour such as theft, absenteeism, and sexual harassment, were self-control followed by integrity measures.

Since the Values in Action (VIA) classification of strengths as developed by Peterson and Seligman (2004b) will be used to measure self-control and integrity as character strengths, it is important to briefly discuss positive psychology as the domain from which this scale originated. The domain of positive psychology could be seen as an umbrella term for research and theories regarding the most important aspects that make life worth living (Park et al., 2004; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Positive psychology focuses on enhancing the existing field of psychology by focusing on strengths and developing the best in life. The general postulation is that excellence and goodness are not illusions, but rather authentic modes and states of being that can be evaluated and achieved (Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003). The domain of positive psychology aims to focus less on weaknesses and more on strengths, to consider developing the best aspects in life, instead of focusing only on restoring the worst, and to consider satisfying and developing the lives of healthy people instead of only focusing on restoring the problems of the distressed (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000).

Thus, some of the central aspects of positive psychology are positive experiences and strengths of character (McCullough & Snyder, 2000; Seligman 2002 as cited in Park et al., 2004) which could be defined as "...positive traits reflected in thoughts, feelings, and behaviours" (Park et al., 2004, p. 603). As a way of measuring different character strengths of individuals in relation to their thoughts, feelings and behaviour the VIA scale consisting of 24 character strengths, was developed by Peterson and Seligman (2004a). This particular scale will be used to measure self-control and integrity as positive strengths of character in relation to the contrasting negative concept of deviant workplace behaviour.

2.8 Chapter integration

Deviant workplace behaviour can be defined as “...voluntary behaviour that violates significant organisational norms and in so doing threatens the well-being of the organisation, its members, or both” (Robinson & Bennett, 1995, p. 556). Deviant workplace behaviour differs in severity and includes behaviours such as absenteeism, alcohol and drug abuse at work, (Kidwell & Martin, 2005; Martinko et al., 2002), organisational theft and sabotage, sexual harassment, workplace bullying (Bulutlar & Öz, 2008; Kelloway et al., 2010; Kidwell & Martin, 2005; Litzky et al., 2006; Martinko, et al., 2005), favouritism, gossiping and compromising of organisational secrets (De Gouveia et al., 2005; Litzky et al., 2006).

Irrespective of the different types of deviant workplace behaviour, it is generally used as a collective term for behaviour that other researchers refer to as workplace deviance (Robinson & Bennett, 1995), organisational misbehaviour (Vardi, 2001) organisational antisocial behaviour (Kidwell & Martin, 2005; Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2010), counterproductive behaviour (Kelloway et al., 2010; Marcus et al., 2002) and dysfunctional behaviour (Kidwell & Martin, 2005). These various types of behaviour often consist of overlapping behavioural domains; for example, organisational theft has been characterised as both dysfunctional behaviour (Kidwell & Martin, 2005) and counterproductive behaviour (Kelloway et al., 2010).

Despite the variety of labels assigned to these deviant workplace behaviours and regardless of the categorisation of the behavioural domains, the central theme is similar in that intentional harm is caused in one way or another, with negative implications for organisations, individuals and society. For the purpose of this study, the central term that will be used when referring to behavioural domains of a harmful nature will be ‘deviant workplace behaviour’.

Since these different behavioural domains can be characterised collectively under the term deviant workplace behaviour, they can be characterised in one of the four typologies of deviant workplace behaviour as well (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). The first two typologies of deviant workplace behaviour, namely, property deviance which refers to damage caused to organisational assets or property, and production deviance relating to behaviours that violate the prescribed norms of the organisation, were developed by Hollinger and Clark (1982).

Political and personal deviance that were added by Robinson and Bennett (1995) to the existing typologies of Hollinger and Clark (1982) relate to the engagement in social interactions that would cause harm to personal or political aspects, and behaving in an aggressive manner (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). These four typologies of deviant workplace behaviour were then categorised in two dimensions, namely interpersonal deviance (political and personal deviance) and organisational deviance (property and production deviance) (Litzky et al., 2006; Peterson, 2002). Regardless of whether deviant workplace behaviours are categorised under the first or second dimension, the question arises as to which aspects would give rise to or cause such behaviour to occur in organisational environments?

Antecedents of deviant workplace behaviour have been identified on a macro-contextual level, an organisational level and a personal level. Macro-contextual antecedents relate to the reputation of a country that could be seriously damaged by corruption, which in turn would jeopardise the probability of foreign and local investment in that country (Halter & Coutinho de Arruda, 2009; Rossouw & Van Vuuren, 2010; Woods, 2010), ultimately negatively impacting on organisations. Organisational antecedents relate to the impact of organisational culture on the propensity of employees to engage in deviant workplace behaviour (Dunn & Schweitzer, 2005; Treviño & Brown, 2005), along with unethical role models or supervisors (Kermis & Kermis, 2009), group norms and the risk of being caught (Mikulay et al., 2001). Personal antecedents that have been identified are demographic

factors such as gender (Douglas & Martinko, 2001), personality types such as type A personalities (Elliot, 2010), and character strengths such as self-control and integrity (Restubog et al., 2010; Halter & Coutinho de Arunda, 2009; Valentine & Barnett, 2003).

Most of the studies related to the antecedents of deviant workplace behaviour have been conducted in developed countries, while there is a dearth of studies in this regard in developing countries. The aim of this research study is to investigate the link between deviant workplace behaviour and the character strengths of self-control and integrity within the South African context.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH DESIGN

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the focus is placed on the research design of the study with particular reference to the specific research question and the methodology. With regard to the methodology, the sampling strategy, research procedure, the measuring instrument and the development thereof, the data analysis technique and research procedure followed in this study will be discussed. The chapter concludes with an ethical consideration of the study.

3.2 Research question

Although the relationship between deviant workplace behaviour and character strengths, such as self-control and integrity, has been investigated in economically developed countries, particularly the USA and Germany, the extent to which the relationship exists in the developing economic context of South Africa remains unexplored. The main research question to be addressed in this study is: to what extent is there a relationship between self-control and integrity as character strengths and the propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour? In order to answer this question the objectives are:

- To measure the extent to which employees personally (*self*) display self-control and integrity as character strengths
- To measure the extent to which employees perceive their *colleagues* to display self-control and integrity as character strengths
- To determine the underlying dimensions of deviant workplace behaviour within the developing economic context of South Africa
- To ascertain the extent to which employees personally (*self*) demonstrate a propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour
- To ascertain the extent to which employees perceive their *colleagues* to demonstrate the propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour

- To determine the relationship between the propensity of employees (*self*) to engage in deviant workplace behaviour, and their self-control and integrity as character strengths
- To determine the relationship between the perceived propensity of the *colleagues* of employees (*self*) to engage in deviant workplace behaviour and their self-control and integrity as character strengths
- To ascertain the differences between self-report measures and non-self-report measures of self-control and integrity as character strengths and deviant workplace behaviour

3.3 Research methodology

The research was conducted using a quantitative approach. In quantitative research a preference exists to work with observable and measurable social reality (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2007a). The research was cross-sectional in nature in that particular phenomena were measured at a particular point in time. The phenomena measured included the propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour as well as self-control and integrity as character strengths (Peterson and Seligman, 2004b). The advantages of using a cross-sectional study include the fact that the study can be conducted in a relatively short time and that it allows for respondents to remain anonymous. Given the sensitive nature of the research question addressed in this study, namely the propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour and the relationship thereof with character strengths, anonymity is considered essential. For the purpose of this study, the data was collected through the use of a structured questionnaire, and thereafter analysed using quantitative methods of analyses. The questionnaire consisted of three sections, namely, the demographic information section, the Deviant Workplace Behaviour Scale, and the Character Strengths Scale with specific reference to self-control and integrity, and is discussed in section 3.3.3.

3.3.1 Sampling strategy

Participants for the study were identified through convenience sampling (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). Convenience sampling is a non-probability sampling technique, hence it is impossible to determine the degree of sampling error or its representativeness (cf. Diamantopoulos & Schlegelmilch, 2000). Convenience sampling implies that sampling units are selected on the basis of availability or accessibility (Diamantopoulos & Schlegelmilch, 2000). The sample consisted of individuals from different cultural backgrounds, both male and female, who were employed within different organisations and industries and who had at least two years of work experience. The majority of the participants were employed in the financial services industry, wholesale and retail industry, transport and storage industry, and the community, social and personal services industry. The level of seniority of the employees varied from general workers to senior or top management of which the majority of participants were employed as specialised/technical employees, middle management, and administrative or secretarial employees.

3.3.2 Research procedure

The individuals were recruited by industrial psychology honours students from a university in South Africa. The students received clear instructions to each recruit 13 individuals to voluntarily participate in the study and who had no less than two years work experience, were not self-employed and were currently working in an organisation or academic institution. Questionnaires were handed to those who were willing to participate and the completed questionnaires were placed in an envelope that was sealed in order to ensure the confidentiality and anonymity of respondents. The students returned the completed questionnaires to the researcher for data capturing and analysis. Uncompleted questionnaires were also returned to the researcher for possible distribution to other willing participants, thus satisfying the inclusion criteria. A list of the names of the students and the

numbered questionnaires handed to them was compiled in order to monitor the process of questionnaire dissemination and return. The data of each returned questionnaire was captured in Excel for further analyses. The final dataset containing all the captured data was then imported into SPSS (SPSS, 2010) for further data analysis.

3.3.3 The measuring instrument

The questionnaire used for the purpose of this research study was adapted from three specific scales, namely, the self-report measure of workplace deviance as developed by Bennett and Robinson (2000), the non-self-report measure of workplace deviance as used by Stewart et al. (2009) and the self-report revised IPIP-VIA Scales, specifically the subscales relating to self-control and integrity as developed by Peterson and Seligman (2004b) (see Appendix).

Bennett and Robinson's original questionnaire was developed based on the four typologies of deviant workplace behaviour (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). After the original typology of deviant workplace behaviour, namely property and production deviance, was developed by Hollinger and Clark (1982), Robinson and Bennett (1995) added political and personal deviance. They subsequently categorised these four typologies of deviant workplace behaviour into two dimensions. The first dimension was dubbed interpersonal deviance and consists of political and personal deviance. The second dimension is organisational deviance and consists of production and property deviance. Bennett and Robinson (2000) developed a self-report questionnaire to measure an individual's propensity to engage in these two dimensions of deviant workplace behaviour, and generated items to measure each.

Bennett and Robinson's original questionnaire consisting of 28 items were reduced, after empirical investigation, to 19 items consisting of seven items relating to interpersonal deviance and 12 items relating to organisational deviance. The response alternative used by Bennett and Robinson was a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = Never, to 7 = Daily. The

internal reliability of the interpersonal deviance dimension was found to be .81 which could be considered as good internal consistency. The internal consistency of the organisational deviance dimension was .78 indicating an acceptable internal reliability (Pallant, 2007, p. 98).

Subsequent to their study, Stewart et al. (2009) modified the scale developed by Bennett and Robinson (2000) by proposing and developing a non-self-report measurement of workplace deviance. They argued that individuals would be more willing to report honestly regarding the deviant workplace behaviour of others (*colleagues*) rather than of themselves. They thus modified the terminology of each item to enable respondents to report on their *colleagues* rather than themselves, and they changed the 7-point scale used by Bennett and Robinson (2000) to a 5-point scale ranging from 1 = Never, to 5 = Daily. The internal reliabilities reported for the three-factor extraction identified by Stewart et al. (2009) were .92 for production deviance, .95 for property deviance and .89 for personal aggression.

In terms of character strengths being measured for the purpose of this study, items adapted from the revised self-report IPIP-VIA Scales (Values in Action [VIA]), specifically the subscales related to the character strengths of self-control and integrity as developed by Peterson and Seligman (2004b), were used. The VIA is a 240-item self-report questionnaire and comprises 24 subscales of character strengths, with 10 items per subscale (Park et al., 2004). A 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1= Very much like me, to 5 = Very much unlike me, is used as a response alternative (Peterson & Seligman, 2004a). Satisfactory internal consistencies for the character strength subscales have been found (Park et al., 2004) of which self-control has an internal reliability of .75 and integrity an internal reliability of .72 (Peterson & Seligman, 2004b).

3.3.4 Development of the research instrument

As mentioned, for the purpose of this research study a research instrument was developed by adapting the self-report and non-self-report Workplace Deviance Scales and a

self-report Character Strengths (Self-control and Integrity) Scale. The research instrument, consisting of three sections (sections A, B and C) is now discussed. The first (section A), namely the demographic section, consisted of thirteen questions relating to the participant's demographic information, such as their home language, level of education, and employment status. These questions were considered necessary in order to establish a profile of the respondents.

Section B of the questionnaire consisted of questions relating to the propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour, while section C consisted of questions relating to the character strengths of self-control and integrity. In order to measure the propensity for deviant workplace behaviour and the character strengths of employees (*self*) and their perceptions regarding the propensity for deviant workplace behaviour and character strengths of their *colleagues*, both self-report and non-self-report scales were used to measure deviant workplace behaviour and character strengths. The rationale for the incorporation of self-report and non-self-report measurements for both the Workplace Deviance Scale and the Character Strength Scale stems from the fact that measuring deviant workplace behaviour and character strength is inherently difficult. This is due to the fact that individuals may be unwilling to admit to engaging in behaviours that are considered to be socially unacceptable (Bennett & Robinson, 2000), or to answer honestly questions of a sensitive nature.

The questions in section B thus consisted of the self-report Workplace Deviance Scale as developed by Bennett and Robinson (2000) (part A) and the non-self-report Workplace Deviance Scale developed by Stewart et al.(2009) (part B). In part A the respondents were expected to indicate the frequency to which they personally (*self*) engaged in the behaviours as listed in the nineteen statements. In part B, the respondents were requested to indicate their perceptions regarding the frequency to which their *colleagues* in their immediate work environment engaged in the behaviours as listed in the nineteen statements. The wording of

the statements in part B was slightly different from part A, in order to allow the respondents to report on the behaviour of their *colleagues*, e.g. “How often do you make fun of someone at work?” as opposed to “How often do your colleagues make fun of someone at work?” To facilitate meaningful comparison of the self-report and non-self-report scales, the response alternatives in part A and part B were the same, namely 1 = Never to 5 = Daily.

The last section of the questionnaire, section C, was aimed at measuring character strength, particularly self-control and integrity. For the purpose of measuring these with regard to the employees (*self*) (part A), the self-report VIA Scales, specifically the subscales related to the character strengths of self-control and integrity as developed by Peterson and Seligman (2004b), were used. Seven of the self-control items and nine integrity items from the VIA Subscales were included. The wording of the self-report subscales of self-control and integrity was adapted in order to measure the employees’ perceptions regarding the self-control and integrity of their *colleagues* (part B). The response alternatives in part A were 1 = Not at all like me, to 5 = Very much like me, while the response alternatives in part B were 1 = Not at all like them, to 5 = Very much like them.

The questionnaire was piloted using 12 respondents. The main objective of the pilot study was to investigate respondents’ understanding of the items and terminology used in the questionnaire in order to make the necessary changes before conducting the research study. A second purpose for conducting a pilot study was to establish how long it would take respondents to complete the questionnaire, which was found to be approximately 15 minutes.

After the pilot study was conducted, certain adaptations were made to the demographic section by adding a category to the question: “How many years of work experience do you have in total?”, namely “Less than 2 years”. This category was added in order to identify early on whether the respondents qualified to take part in the study based on the specific criteria identified. Adaptations to the prominent industries were also made by

including 'banking' to the financial intermediation, insurance, real-estate and business services category. 'Central Government' was changed to 'National Government'. The order of the response scale of the IPIP-VIA Scales (section B, part A) ranging from 1 = Very much like me, to 5 = Not at all like me, was changed in order to range from 1 = Not at all like me, to 5 = Very much like me. The order of the response scale relating to the colleagues in part B was also changed accordingly (1 = Not at all like them, to 5 = Very much like them).

With regard to the remainder of the questionnaire, certain terminology was simplified and in some cases items were stated in the positive rather than the negative, as respondents in the pilot study found the negatively worded items to be confusing. For example, item two of the IPIP-VIA Scales was changed from "I am not very good at getting things done" to "I am very good at getting things done." The same changes were made to section C part B, relating to the *colleagues* of the respondents. Item 8 of section C, part A was changed from "I sacrifice things that are bad for me in the long run even if they make me feel good in the short run" to "I give up things that are bad for me in the long run even if they make me feel good in the short run". The same item for section C part B pertaining to the respondents' *colleagues* was also adapted accordingly. Since Item 16 (integrity item) of section C, part A and B, "I feel like an imposter" and "My colleagues feel like imposters", seemed to generate confusion among respondents, it was decided to delete the item from both part A and B.

After these necessary changes were made to the adapted questionnaire it was found to be appropriate for use in conducting this particular research study. The final questionnaire thus consisted of three sections. Section A included demographic questions, for example, "What is your gender?" and "What is your highest level of education?" In section B, part A and B, the self-report and non-self-report Workplace Deviance Scales were included, both comprising 19 items. The items for both part A and B were measured on a response scale ranging from 1 = Never, to 5 = Daily, enabling respondents to report on their own (*self*)

propensity for deviant workplace behaviour, as well as their perceptions regarding the propensity for deviant workplace behaviour in their *colleagues*. Examples of items used in part A are “How often do you make fun of someone at work?” and “How often do you put little effort into your work?” Examples of items used in part B are “How often do your colleagues make fun of someone at work?” and “How often do your colleagues put little effort into their work?”

In the final section, section C, the Character Strengths Scale was included, consisting of seven self-control items and eight integrity items for both the employees (*self*) (part A) and their perceptions regarding the character strengths of their *colleagues* (part B). In part A, a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = Not at all like me, to 5 = Very much like me, was used to measure the degree to which respondents affirm strength-relevant statements about themselves (*self*). For example, “I am true to my values”. In part B the same questions were used with slight adaptations to the terminology in order to report on strength-relevant statements about the respondents’ *colleagues*; for example, “My colleagues are true to their values”. For this section a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = Not at all like them, to 5 = Very much like them, was used.

3.4 Data analysis

Apart from calculating basic descriptive statistics to identify the profile of the respondents in the survey, the Workplace Deviance Scales of Bennett and Robinson (2000) and Stewart et al. (2009), and the VIA Classification Scale of Peterson and Seligman (2004b), were analysed by determining the following:

- a) Descriptive statistics for each item in the scales in the form of frequencies, percentages and means; standard deviations, skewness, and kurtosis values were calculated.

- b) The underlying dimension(s) of each scale was determined using factor analysis. The principal axis factoring (PAF) method was used to extract the dimensions and Direct Oblimin rotations were used to assist with the interpretation.
- c) Internal reliability was calculated of each of the resulting dimensions by means of Cronbach Alpha.

The following values were calculated for the respondents and their colleagues:

- a) The extent to which respondents personally (*self*) display self-control and integrity and perceive their *colleagues* to display self-control and integrity was determined by means of descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations).
- b) The extent to which respondents (*self*) demonstrate the propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour and perceive their *colleagues* to demonstrate the propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour were calculated by means of descriptive statistics.
- c) Correlations between the propensity of respondents (*self*) to engage in deviant workplace behaviour and self-control and integrity as character strengths were calculated. Both Pearson product moment correlations and Spearman rank correlations were utilised. The utilisation of the Spearman correlations was based on the fact that the assumption of normality was not tenable in all cases.
- d) The correlations between the propensity of the respondents' *colleagues* to engage in deviant workplace behaviour and self-control and integrity as character strengths were calculated. Both Pearson product moment correlations and Spearman rank correlations were used. The utilisation of the Spearman correlations was based on the fact that the assumption of normality was not tenable in all cases.
- e) Differences between self-report measures (*self*) and non-self-report measures (*colleagues*) of each of self-control and integrity as character strengths and the

dimensions of deviant workplace behaviour were determined using paired samples t-tests.

3.5 Ethical considerations

In the context of research, ethics can be seen as the suitability of the researcher's behaviour in relation to the rights of the individuals who become the subject of the researcher's work, or are affected by it (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2007b). There are numerous key ethical issues that arise across the duration and the different stages of research. In this study there were several ethical aspects that were considered. Informed consent was obtained from the respondents. They were also granted privacy, and were able to voluntarily participate in the research and withdraw from the process partially or completely at any time. Anonymity of respondents was assured and the confidentiality of the data was taken into consideration at all times in the process. The completed questionnaires were returned by the industrial psychology honours students to the researcher.

The data was stored in a safe location, protected from any trespassers, in order to ensure confidentiality, anonymity and reliability. The respondents' reactions were respected and taken into consideration during the collection of data. Sensitivity and respect were applied to the manner in which the data was analysed and reported in order to avoid embarrassment, discomfort, stress, harm or pain to any of the respondents.

3.6 Chapter integration

In Chapter 3 the research design was discussed in detail, ranging from the specific research questions to the exact methodology followed in this research study. The main research question of this study was to establish the relationship between self-control and integrity as character strengths with the propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour. In order to answer this specific research question, the exact methodology was discussed in relation to the sample strategy, research procedure, measuring instrument and the data

analysis. In conclusion, the ethical considerations as accounted for in this study were provided

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

In order to answer the research questions, the responses obtained from the questionnaires were captured and the relevant statistical analyses were conducted utilising the statistical package SPSS version 18 (SPSS, 2010). In this chapter, results of the findings of the research study are provided. Firstly, a description of the sample is reported. This is followed by the factor analysis of both the Character Strength Scale (Peterson & Seligman, 2004b) as well as the Workplace Deviance Scales (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Stewart et al., 2009). The chapter concludes with a description of the Pearson correlations and Spearman rank correlations between the character strength factors and the deviant workplace behaviour factors of both the perceptions of the employees (*self*) and their perceptions of their *colleagues*.

4.2 Sample description

The population consisted of as many working individuals in the Gauteng area as possible. The sample of this study was one of convenience. A total of 500 employees in different organisations and industries were approached to participate in the study/survey; and 327 were willing to complete the questionnaire. Of these, 35 respondents did not meet the criterion of a minimum of two years' work experience. The final sample size for the study was thus 292 respondents. Table 4.1 provides summary information regarding the background characteristics of the sample:

Table 4.1
Background Characteristics of Participants (N = 292)

Item	Category	Number of respondents	Percentage of 292
Gender	Male	119	40.80
	Female	172	58.90
Marital status	Married or co-habitant	164	56.20
	Single, divorced or widowed	128	43.90
Age	Younger than 25 years	37	12.70
	25 to 35 years	119	40.80
	36 to 45 years	49	16.80
	46 to 55 years	65	22.30
	Older than 55 years	22	7.50
Mother tongue	English	134	45.90
	Afrikaans	83	28.40
	Other languages	75	25.70
Current home language	English	149	51.00
	Afrikaans	77	26.40
	Other languages	65	22.30
Education	Grade 12 or lower	65	22.30
	Post-school diploma	94	32.20
	Undergraduate degree	65	22.30
	Postgraduate degree	68	23.30
Employment	Permanent full time employment	258	88.40
	Temporary employment	10	3.40
	Contract employment	17	5.80
	Other	7	2.40

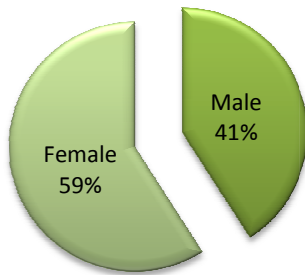


Figure 4.1 Gender of respondents

The male/female split was approximately 40/60 (figure 4.1). The majority, 56.20%, are married or co-habitant, whereas 43.90% are single, widowed, or divorced. When considering the age of the respondents as depicted in figure 4.2, 12.70% were younger than

25 years at the time the survey was conducted, with the majority aged between 25 and 35 years (40.80%). A very small percentage 7.50% was older than 55 years.

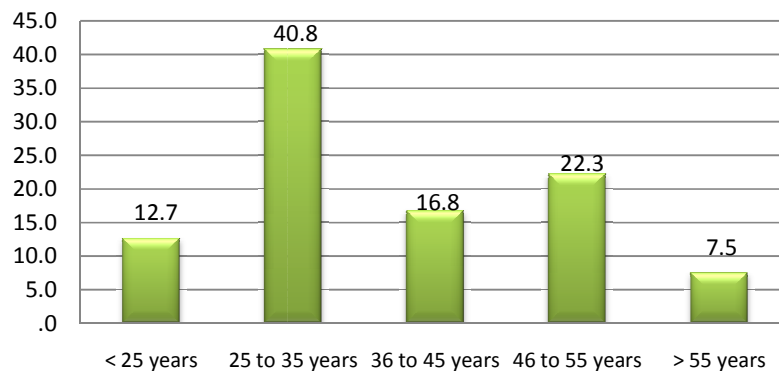


Figure 4.2 Age category of respondents

As evident from table 4.1, the majority of the respondents indicated that their mother tongue is English (45.90%), while 28.40% indicated that Afrikaans is their mother tongue. The mother tongue for the remainder of the respondents (25.70%) was an African, European, or Asian language, or some other language. In terms of the respondents' current home language, the majority were once again English (51%), followed by Afrikaans (26.40%), and 22.30% speak either an African, European, Asian or some other languages.

From table 4.1 and figure 4.3 it is evident that large percentages of respondents each indicated that their highest level of education is Grade 12 or lower (22.30%), a post-school diploma (32.20%), an undergraduate degree (22.30%) or a postgraduate degree (23.30%). The majority of the respondents were employed on a full-time basis (88.40%) whereas the remainder of the respondents were employed on the basis of other employment arrangements.

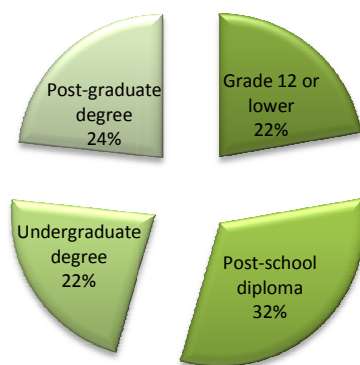


Figure 4.3 Highest level of education of respondents

4.3 Character strengths: self-control and integrity

The items in section C of the questionnaire related to the extent to which the respondents themselves, *self* on the one hand, and their *colleagues* on the other, display the character strengths of self-control and integrity. As far as self-control is concerned, seven items adopted from the revised IPIP-VIA Scale, specifically the Self-control Subscale as developed by Peterson and Seligman (2004b), were posed, while eight items relating to integrity were adapted from the VIA Scale, with specific reference to the Integrity Subscale. The findings of the analysis conducted on each of the Self-control and Integrity Subscales will now be discussed.

4.3.1 Self-control

Descriptive statistics, namely the minimum and maximum values, the mean and the standard deviation and the measures of skewness and kurtosis of the *self* as well as the *colleagues* were calculated. As indicated in table 4.2, the items related to the *self* were characterised by being either positively or negatively skew and leptokurtic, indicating departures from the normality assumption. Examples of items that were negatively skewed are: “I am very good at getting things done” (skewness value = -1.49), “I feel that practice is

as important as performance” (skewness = -1.39), and “I am a highly disciplined person” (skewness = -0.94). This implies that respondents tended to agree with these statements.

Table 4.2

Means, Standard Deviations (SD), Skewness and Kurtosis Values of Self-control Items Relating to the Self

	Item	Number of respondents per item	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
1.	I am very good at getting things done	292	1	5	4.45	0.74	-1.49	2.68
2.	I feel that practice is as important as performance	291	1	5	4.31	0.86	-1.39	2.09
3.	I give in to my urges	292	1	5	2.51	1.11	0.33	-0.63
4.	I give up things that are bad for me in the long run even if they make me feel good in the short run	291	1	5	3.55	1.20	-0.46	-0.67
5.	I control my emotions	291	1	5	3.85	1.00	-0.72	0.02
6.	I am a highly disciplined person	290	1	5	4.14	0.91	-0.94	0.37
7.	I do my tasks only just before they need to be done	292	1	5	2.55	1.30	0.40	-0.98

With regard to the *colleagues* items, the skewness and kurtosis values were found to be within the acceptable range to warrant factor analysis (Schepers, 1992) since they were generally close to zero, indicating little departure from normality (table 4.3). The skewness values ranged from a low of -0.49 (“My colleagues feel that practice is as important as performance”) to a high of 0.25 (“My colleagues do their tasks only just before they need to be done”).

To ascertain the underlying dimensions of the items posed in terms of the character strength of self-control, factor analysis was conducted on the items related to *colleagues*. To determine whether the self-control items shared sufficient correlation to warrant a factor analysis, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) was determined and the Bartlett’s test of sphericity was performed. The KMO value of .79 exceeded the

recommended minimum of .60 (Pallant, 2007, p. 181) and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($p = 0.00$) (Pallant, 2007, p. 181). All the MSA values exceeded the recommended minimum of .60 indicating that each of the items could be included in the factor analysis.

Table 4.3

Means, Standard Deviations (SD), Skewness and Kurtosis Values of Self-control Items Relating to the Colleagues

Item	Number of respondents per item	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
1. My colleagues are very good at getting things done	291	1	5	3.78	0.91	-0.42	-0.31
2. My colleagues feel that practice is as important as performance	289	1	5	3.78	0.98	-0.49	-0.23
3. My colleagues give in to their urges	289	1	5	2.78	1.06	0.11	-0.44
4. My colleagues give up things that are bad for them in the long run even if it makes them feel good in the short run	287	1	5	3.03	1.06	-0.13	-0.40
5. My colleagues control their emotions	290	1	5	3.20	1.04	-0.18	-0.52
6. My colleagues are highly disciplined people	290	1	5	3.60	1.03	-0.42	-0.33
7. My colleagues do their tasks only just before they need to be done	288	1	5	2.72	1.17	0.25	-0.70
8. My colleagues argue or complain about the cost of things they buy	288	1	5	2.84	1.21	0.04	-0.94

Common factor analysis, or principal axis factoring (PAF), was performed on the self-control items using the Kaiser criterion (Kaiser, 1961) of eigen values greater than unity to determine the number of factors to be extracted, and the Direct Oblimin Rotation to facilitate interpretation. Two factors were extracted explaining 59.81% of the common variance. As indicated in the pattern matrix (table 4.4) five items had high loadings on the first factor and

two items had high loadings on the second factor. There were four items in the first factor that cross-loaded, with negative correlations slightly $< -.1$ and one item with a positive correlation of .28 (“My colleagues give up things that are bad for them in the long run even if it makes them feel good in the short run”) on the second factor. One item (“My colleagues give in to their urges”) from the second factor also cross-loaded, with a negative correlation slightly $< -.1$ (-.14) on the first factor.

Table 4.4
Factor Loadings of the Self-control Subscale

Items	Factor 1	Factor 2
1. My colleagues are highly disciplined people	.76	-.10
2. My colleagues feel that practice is as important as performance	.76	-.10
3. My colleagues are very good at getting things done	.64	-.19
4. My colleagues control their emotions	.61	-
5. My colleagues give up things that are bad for them in the long run even if it makes them feel good in the short run	.53	.28
6. My colleagues do their tasks only just before they need to be done	-	.67
7. My colleagues give in to their urges	-.14	.42

- Absolute value of factor loading $< .1$

As a result of the wording of the items in the first and the second factor, the first factor was named Self-control, consisting of five items, while the second factor was named Lack of Self-control, consisting of two items. However, two items are not considered sufficient to establish a factor (Pallant, 2007, p. 192), and for this reason only the first factor (Self-control) was considered for further analysis. The Cronbach Alpha value for Self-control was slightly $< .8$ (.79) indicating an acceptable internal consistency (Pallant, 2007, p. 98). The internal consistency of the factor extracted from the *colleagues* items were determined to the corresponding items related to the *self*. This revealed that the Cronbach Alpha for Self-control was $< .7$ (.65) indicating an internal consistency relatively close to the cut-off point of .7. A description of this factor for the *colleagues* and for the *self* as well as the internal consistency of each of these appears in table 4.5.

Table 4.5
Description of the Self-control Factor

Factor name	Factor number	Number of items	Sample items	Cronbach Alpha value for self	Cronbach Alpha value for colleagues
Self-control	1	5	1. I am very good at getting things done	.65	
			2. I feel that practice is as important as performance		
			3. I give up things that are bad for me in the long run even if they make me feel good in the short run		
			4. I control my emotions		
			5. I am a highly disciplined person		
			1. My colleagues are very good at getting things done		.79
			2. My colleagues feel that practice is as important as performance		
			3. My colleagues give up things that are bad for them in the long run even if it makes them feel good in the short run		
			4. My colleagues control their emotions		
			5. My colleagues are highly disciplined people		

For each respondent a score for each Self-control (*self*) and Self-control (*colleagues*) was calculated by determining the average response over the five items in the factor. Theoretically the scores can range from a minimum of 1.00 (no self-control) to a maximum of 5.00 (total self-control). Descriptive statistics for the Self-control factors (*self* and *colleagues*) are presented in table 4.6. For Self-control (*self*), the scores range from a minimum of 2.00 to a maximum of 5.00 with an average score of 4.06. The Self-control (*colleagues*) scores ranged from a minimum of 1.00 to a maximum of 5.00 with an average value of 3.48. This implies that none of the respondents considered themselves to have no self-control.

Table 4.6

Descriptive Statistics of the Self-control Factor (Number of Respondents (N), Minimum, Maximum, Mean, Standard Deviation (SD), Skewness and Kurtosis)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Self-control (self)	292	2.00	5.00	4.06	0.62	-0.64	0.18
Self-control (colleagues)	291	1.00	5.00	3.48	0.74	-0.28	0.30

4.3.2 Integrity

The exact process as followed in the analysis of the Self-control Subscale was also followed for the Integrity Subscale. As indicated in table 4.7, the items related to the *self* were, in general, characterised by being either positively or negatively skew and leptokurtic. Items that were negatively skewed include: “I can be trusted to keep secrets” (skewness value = -2.22), “I can be trusted to keep my promises” (skewness= -2.02), and “I believe that honesty is the basis for trust” (skewness = -2.34) indicating that most of the respondents tended to agree with these statements.

Table 4.7

Means, Standard Deviations (SD), Skewness and Kurtosis of Integrity Items Relating to the Self

Item	Number of respondents per item	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
1. I can be trusted to keep secrets	292	1.00	5.00	4.57	0.73	-2.22	6.20
2. I am true to my values	292	1.00	5.00	4.55	0.69	-1.85	4.78
3. I like to exaggerate my troubles	291	1.00	5.00	2.25	1.15	0.69	-0.28
4. I can be trusted to keep my promises	291	1.00	5.00	4.45	0.84	-2.02	4.79
5. I lie to get myself out of trouble	292	1.00	5.00	1.93	1.24	1.19	0.32
6. I believe that honesty is the basis for trust	292	1.00	5.00	4.59	0.77	-2.34	6.35
7. People find it difficult to understand me	292	1.00	5.00	2.32	1.27	0.60	-0.73
8. I keep my promises	292	1.00	5.00	4.50	0.77	-1.68	2.81

In terms of the *colleague's* items (table 4.8), the skewness and kurtosis values were in general close to zero, indicating little departure from normality. The skewness values ranged from a low of -0.64 ("My colleagues believe that honesty is the basis for trust") to a high of 0.38 ("My colleagues lie to get themselves out of trouble"). According to Schepers (1992), factor analysis of these items could be considered.

Table 4.8

Means, Standard Deviations (SD), Skewness and Kurtosis of Integrity Items Relating to the Colleagues

	Item	Number of respondents per item	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
1.	My colleagues are true to their values	291	1.00	5.00	3.32	1.15	-0.31	-0.74
2.	My colleagues can be trusted to keep secrets	291	1.00	5.00	3.77	0.95	-0.55	-0.02
3.	My colleagues keep their promises	290	1.00	5.00	2.94	1.18	0.03	-0.84
4.	My colleagues can be trusted to keep their promises	290	1.00	5.00	3.52	1.00	-0.33	-0.17
5.	My colleagues believe that honesty is the basis for trust	290	1.00	5.00	2.50	1.21	0.38	-0.78
6.	My colleagues lie to get themselves out of trouble	290	1.00	5.00	3.78	1.05	-0.64	-0.07
7.	My colleagues like to exaggerate their troubles	289	1.00	5.00	2.47	1.07	0.25	-0.55
8.	People find it difficult to understand my colleagues	291	1.00	5.00	3.61	1.07	-0.55	-0.29

To ascertain the underlying dimensions of the items posed in terms of the character strength of integrity, factor analysis was henceforth conducted on the items related to *colleagues*. The KMO value of .86 exceeded the recommended minimum of .60 (Pallant, 2007, p. 181) and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($p = 0.00$). These results implied that a factor analysis was warranted. All the MSA values were above .60. Two factors were extracted explaining 62.77% of the common variance. As indicated in the pattern matrix (table 4.9), five items had high loadings on the first factor and three items had high loadings on the second factor. There was only one item ("My colleagues can be trusted to keep secrets") that cross-loaded on the second factor with a loading of .11.

Table 4.9
Factor Loadings of the Integrity Subscale

Items	Factor 1	Factor 2
1. My colleagues are true to their values	.79	-
2. My colleagues can be trusted to keep secrets	.77	.11
3. My colleagues keep their promises	.76	-
4. My colleagues can be trusted to keep their promises	.74	-
5. My colleagues believe that honesty is the basis for trust	.73	-
6. My colleagues lie to get themselves out of trouble	-	.66
7. My colleagues like to exaggerate their troubles	-	.64
8. People find it difficult to understand my colleagues	-	.43

- Absolute value of factor loading <.1

Based on the wording of the items in the first and the second factor, the first factor was named Integrity while the second factor was named Lack of Integrity. To ascertain the internal reliability of the items in these two factors, the Cronbach Alpha measure of internal consistency was used. The Cronbach Alpha value for the first factor (Integrity) was $> .8$ (.87) indicating a high internal consistency (Pallant, 2007, p. 98). The Cronbach Alpha value for the second factor (Lack of Integrity) was $< .7$ (.60) indicating low internal consistency. The internal consistency of the factors extracted from the *colleagues* items were determined to the corresponding items related to the *self*. This revealed that the Cronbach Alpha for the first factor (Integrity) was $> .8$ (.83) indicating high internal consistency, while the Cronbach Alpha value for the second factor (Lack of Integrity) was $< .7$ (.53), indicating low internal consistency.

Since the second factor (Lack of Integrity) was found to have low internal consistency for both the *self* (.53) and the *colleagues* (.60), this factor was not considered suitable to warrant further analyses. Consequently, the Integrity Subscale consisted of one factor (Integrity) with five items. A description of the Integrity factor for the *colleagues* and the *self*, as well as the internal consistency of each of these, appears in table 4.10.

Table 4.10

Description of the Integrity Factor

Factor name	Factor number	Number of items	Sample items	Cronbach Alpha value for self	Cronbach Alpha value for colleagues
Integrity	1	5	1. I can be trusted to keep secrets	.83	
			2. I am true to my values		
			3. I can be trusted to keep my promises		
			4. I believe that honesty is the basis for trust		
			5. I keep my promises		
			1. My colleagues can be trusted to keep secrets		.87
			2. My colleagues are true to their values		
			3. My colleagues can be trusted to keep their promises		
			4. My colleagues believe that honesty is the basis for trust		
			5. My colleagues keep their promises		

For each respondent a score for each of Integrity (*self*) and Integrity (*colleagues*) was calculated by determining the average response over the five items in the factor.

Theoretically the scores can range from a minimum of 1.00 (no integrity) to a maximum of 5.00 (total integrity). Descriptive statistics for the Integrity factor are presented in table 4.11.

For Integrity (*self*), the scores range from a minimum of 1.20 to a maximum of 5.00 with an average score of 4.53. The Integrity (*colleagues*) scores ranged from a minimum of 1.00 to a maximum of 5.00 with an average value of 3.60. This implies that none of the respondents considered themselves to have no integrity.

Table 4.11

Descriptive Statistics of the Integrity Factor (Number of Respondents (N), Minimum, Maximum, Mean, Standard Deviation (SD), Skewness and Kurtosis)

Factor	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Integrity (self)	292	1.20	5.00	4.53	0.58	-1.87	5.36
Integrity (colleagues)	291	1.00	5.00	3.60	0.85	-0.38	0.00

4.4 Deviant workplace behaviour

The items in section B of the questionnaire related to the extent to which the respondents, *self* on the one hand and their *colleagues*, on the other hand, display deviant behaviour at work. The 19-item scale consisted of the adapted version of the self-report Workplace Deviance Scale as developed by Bennett and Robinson (2000) and the non-self-report version thereof as adapted by Stewart et al. (2009). The same process that was followed for the analysis of the character strengths was also followed for the Deviant Workplace Behaviour Scale. Therefore, the findings of the analysis conducted on the Deviant Workplace Behaviour Scale will now be discussed in the same manner. Descriptive statistics, of the *self* as well as the *colleagues* were calculated. As indicated in table 4.12, the items related to the *self* were, in general characterised by being positively skew and leptokurtic indicating departures from the normality assumption. The skewness values range from a low of 0.76 (“How often do you make fun of someone at work?”) to a high of 7.79 (“How often do you use an illegal drug or consume alcohol on the job?”) indicating that respondents tended to deny engaging in these kinds of behaviour.

Table 4.12

Means, Standard Deviations (SD), Skewness and Kurtosis of the Deviant Workplace Behaviour Items Relating to the Self

Item	Number of respondents	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
How often do you:							
1. Make fun of someone at work?	292	1	5	2.28	1.45	0.76	-0.88
2. Play a mean prank on someone at work?	292	1	5	1.33	0.76	2.83	8.36
3. Falsify a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spent on business expenses?	291	1	4	1.06	0.32	6.03	40.91
4. Intentionally work slower than you could have worked?	292	1	5	1.50	0.84	1.91	3.36
5. Say something hurtful to someone at work?	292	1	5	1.33	0.68	2.60	8.13
6. Act rudely toward someone at work?	291	1	5	1.39	0.76	2.52	7.14
7. Take an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace?	292	1	5	1.57	0.92	1.91	3.46
8. Discuss confidential company information with an unauthorised person?	292	1	5	1.19	0.55	3.96	19.44
9. Make an ethnic, religious, or racial remark at work?	291	1	5	1.42	0.83	2.46	6.53
10. Publicly embarrass someone at work?	292	1	5	1.19	0.64	4.32	19.96
11. Come in late to work without permission?	291	1	5	1.42	0.78	2.35	6.35
12. Use an illegal drug or consume alcohol on the job?	292	1	5	1.06	0.36	7.79	68.82
13. Curse at someone at work?	292	1	5	1.44	0.94	2.50	5.77
14. Take property from work without permission?	292	1	5	1.15	0.44	4.07	23.24
15. Litter your work environment?	292	1	5	1.21	0.64	3.57	13.53
16. Put little effort into your work?	292	1	5	1.37	0.79	2.89	9.54
17. Spend too much time fantasising or daydreaming instead of working?	292	1	5	1.59	0.84	1.69	3.15
18. Neglect to follow your boss's instructions?	292	1	4	1.32	0.57	1.83	3.52
19. Drag out work in order to get overtime?	292	1	4	1.10	0.36	4.45	23.27

With regard to the *colleagues* items as reported in table 4.13, the skewness and kurtosis values were generally closer to zero, indicating a slight departure from normality. The skewness values ranged from a low of .65 (“How often do your colleagues make fun of someone at work?”) to a high of 2.96 (“How often do your colleagues use an illegal drug or consume alcohol on the job?”). In order to identify the underlying dimensions of the items posed in terms of deviant workplace behaviour, factor analysis was conducted on the items relating to the *colleagues* in the same manner as with the character strengths of self-control and integrity. The KMO value was .94, the Bartlett’s test of sphericity was significant ($p = 0.00$) (Pallant, 2007, p. 181) and all the MSA values were above .60. These results implied that a factor analysis was warranted.

Table 4.13

Means, Standard Deviations (SD), Skewness and Kurtosis of the Deviant Workplace Behaviour Items Relating to the Colleagues

Item	Number of respondents	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
How often do your colleagues:							
1. Make fun of someone at work?	291	1	5	2.51	1.35	0.65	-0.79
2. Play a mean prank on someone at work?	292	1	5	1.60	0.90	1.89	3.83
3. Falsify a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than they spent on business expenses?	288	1	5	1.33	0.72	2.72	8.44
4. Intentionally work slower than they could have worked?	291	1	5	2.00	1.11	1.14	0.66
5. Say something hurtful to someone at work?	290	1	5	1.89	1.07	1.29	1.06
6. Act rudely toward someone at work?	291	1	5	1.99	1.14	1.11	0.36
7. Take an additional or longer break than is acceptable at their workplace?	290	1	5	2.19	1.23	0.94	-0.07
8. Discuss confidential company information with an unauthorised person?	288	1	5	1.58	0.91	1.86	3.45
9. Make an ethnic, religious, or racial remark at work?	289	1	5	1.89	1.11	1.29	0.93
10. Publicly embarrass someone at work?	289	1	5	1.64	0.99	1.74	2.57
11. Come in late to work without permission?	290	1	5	2.15	1.20	1.00	0.09
12. Use an illegal drug or consume alcohol on the job?	289	1	5	1.32	0.81	2.96	8.73
13. Curse at someone at work?	288	1	5	1.80	1.20	1.52	1.25
14. Take property from work without permission?	287	1	5	1.52	0.84	2.00	4.45
15. Litter their work environment?	289	1	5	1.69	1.05	1.60	1.72

16. Put little effort into their work?	287	1	5	1.92	1.07	1.28	1.09
17. Spend too much time fantasising or daydreaming instead of working?	287	1	5	2.03	1.14	1.16	0.61
18. Neglect to follow their boss's instructions?	289	1	5	1.89	1.06	1.35	1.34
19. Drag out work in order to get overtime?	288	1	5	1.53	1.03	2.04	3.24

Three factors were extracted explaining 56.97% of the common variance. As indicated in the pattern matrix (table 4.14) ten items had high loadings on the first factor, six items had high loadings on the second factor, while three items loaded high on the third factor. There were four items in the first factor and six items on the third factor that slightly cross-loaded on the second factor. Respectively, the highest of these cross-loadings were .27 and .29 for the item “How often do your colleagues curse at someone at work?” Two items from the second factor cross-loaded with small correlations on the first factor, while four items cross-loaded on the third factor. The highest loading was .43 (“How often do your colleagues make an ethnic, religious, or racial remark at work?”). There were only two items in the third factor which cross-loaded on the first factor with loadings slightly > .1 (“How often do your colleagues take property from work without permission”, and “How often do your colleagues use an illegal drug or consume alcohol on the job”).

Based on the wording of the items in the three factors, the first factor was named Lack of Respect for Legitimate Organisational Expectations and consisted of ten items, the second factor was named Lack of Respect for Co-workers and consisted of six items, and the third factor was named Lack of Respect for Organisational Policy/Law consisting of three items. The Cronbach Alpha values of the first and second factor were both > .7 indicating a high internal consistency (Pallant, 2007, p. 98). The Cronbach Alpha value for the first factor

(Lack of Respect for Legitimate Organisational Expectations) was .92 and for the second factor (Lack of Respect for Co-workers), was .87. The Cronbach Alpha value for the third factor (Lack of Respect for Organisational Policy/Law) was slightly $> .7$ (.79) indicating acceptable internal consistency (Pallant, 2007, p. 98).

Table 4.14
Factor Loadings of the Deviant Workplace Behaviour Items

Items	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
How often do my colleagues:	-	-	-
1. Intentionally work slower than they could have worked?	.96	-	-.21
2. Spend too much time fantasising or daydreaming instead of working?	.83	-	-
3. Take an additional or longer break than is acceptable at their workplace?	.76	-	-
4. Put little effort into their work?	.74	-	-
5. Come in late to work without permission?	.67	-	.12
6. Drag out work in order to get overtime?	.53	-	.19
7. Neglect to follow their boss's instructions?	.53	.15	.20
8. Litter their work environment?	.51	.11	-
9. Falsify a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than they spent on business expenses?	.41	.15	.12
10. Curse at someone at work?	.31	.27	.29
11. Play a mean prank on someone at work?	-	.78	-
12. Make fun of someone at work?	-	.68	-.11
13. Publicly embarrass someone at work?	-	.67	.26
14. Say something hurtful to someone at work?	.19	.65	-
15. Act rudely toward someone at work?	.22	.50	.23
16. Make an ethnic, religious, or racial remark at work?	-	.45	.43
17. Discuss confidential company information with an unauthorised person?	-	-	.79
18. Take property from work without permission?	.14	-	.66
19. Use an illegal drug or consume alcohol on the job?	.16	-	.56
- Absolute value of factor loading $< .1$			

The internal consistency of the factors extracted from the *colleagues* items were determined to the corresponding items related to the *self*. This revealed that the Cronbach Alpha for the first factor and the second factor were both $> .7$ indicating acceptable internal consistencies (Pallant, 2007, p. 98). The Cronbach Alpha value for the first factor was .77 and the Cronbach Alpha for the second factor was .76. The Cronbach Alpha value of the third factor was $< .4$ (.39) indicating a very low internal consistency. As a result, the third

factor pertaining to the *self* was not included for further analysis. A description of these factors for the *colleagues* and the *self* and the internal consistency of each of these is in table 4.15.

Table 4.15

Description of the Deviant Workplace Behaviour Factors

Factor name	Factor number	Number of items	Sample items	Cronbach Alpha value for self	Cronbach Alpha value for colleagues
Lack of respect for legitimate organisational expectations	1	10	How often do you: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Falsify a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spent on business expenses? 2. Intentionally work slower than they could have worked? 3. Take an additional or longer break than is acceptable at their workplace? 4. Come in late to work without permission? 5. Curse at someone at work? 6. Litter their work environment? 7. Put little effort into their work? 8. Spend too much time fantasising or daydreaming instead of working? 9. Neglect to follow their boss's instructions? 10. Drag out work in order to get overtime? 	.77	
			How often do your colleagues: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Falsify a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than they spent on business expenses? 2. Intentionally work slower than they could have worked? 3. Take an additional or longer break than is acceptable at their workplace? 4. Come in late to work without permission? 5. Curse at someone at work? 6. Litter their work environment? 7. Put little effort into their work? 8. Spend too much time fantasising or daydreaming instead of working? 9. Neglect to follow their boss's instructions? 10. Drag out work in order to get overtime? 		.92
Lack of respect for co-workers	2	6	How often do you: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Make fun of someone at work? 2. Play a mean prank on someone at work? 3. Say something hurtful to someone at work? 4. Act rudely toward someone at 	.76	

			work?	
			5. Make an ethnic, religious, or racial remark at work?	
			6. Publicly embarrass someone at work?	
			How often your colleagues:	
			1. Make fun of someone at work?	
			2. Play a mean prank on someone at work?	
			3. Say something hurtful to someone at work?	.87
			4. Act rudely toward someone at work?	
			5. Make an ethnic, religious, or racial remark at work?	
			6. Publicly embarrass someone at work?	
Lack of respect for organisational policy/law	3	3	How often do you:	
			1. Discuss confidential company information with an unauthorised person?	
			2. Use an illegal drug or consume alcohol on the job?	.39
			3. Take property from work without permission?	
			How often do your colleagues:	
			1. Discuss confidential company information with an unauthorised person?	
			2. Use an illegal drug or consume alcohol on the job?	.79
			3. Take property from work without permission?	

For each respondent, a score for each of the deviant workplace behaviour factors for the *self* and for the *colleagues* was calculated by determining the average response over all the items of each factor. Theoretically the scores can range from a minimum of 1.00 (no propensity for deviant workplace behaviour) to a maximum of 5.00 (total propensity for deviant workplace behaviour). Descriptive statistics of each of the deviant workplace behaviour factors are presented in table 4.16.

The Lack of Respect for Legitimate Organisational Expectations (*self*) scores ranged from a minimum of 1.00 to a maximum of 3.10 with an average value of 1.36, while the

scores for the *colleagues* ranged from a minimum of 1.00 to a maximum of 5.00 with an average value of 1.86. The Lack of Respect for Co-Workers (*self*) scores ranged from a minimum of 1.00 to a maximum of 5.00 with an average of 1.49 and for the *colleagues*, the scores ranged from a minimum of 1.00 to a maximum of 5.00 with an average of 1.93. For the last deviant workplace behaviour factor Lack of Respect for Organisational Policy/Law (*self*) the scores ranged from a minimum of 1.00 to a maximum of 3.33 with an average of 1.13, while the scores for the *colleagues* ranged from 1.00 to 5.00 with an average of 1.48. This implies that none of the respondents considered themselves to have a total lack of respect for legitimate organisational expectations, co-workers, or organisational policy/law.

With regards to the skewness and kurtosis values of the deviant workplace behaviour factors, as indicated in table 4.16, the values pertaining to the *self* were in general characterised as being positively skew and leptokurtic indicating departures from the normality assumption. As for the skewness and kurtosis values of the *colleagues*, the values were in general found to be within the acceptable range (Schepers, 1992) since they were mostly close to zero, indicating little departure from normality. However, the last deviant workplace behaviour factor of the *colleagues*, Lack of Respect for Organisational Policy/Law, were characterised as being positively skew and leptokurtic indicating departures from the normality assumption.

Table 4.16

Descriptive Statistics for the Deviant Workplace Behaviour Factors (Number of Respondents (N), Minimum, Maximum, Mean, Standard Deviation (SD), Skewness and Kurtosis)

Item	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
1. Lack of respect for legitimate organisational expectations (self)	292	1.00	3.10	1.36	0.42	1.63	2.80
2. Lack of respect for co-workers (self)	292	1.00	5.00	1.49	0.60	2.10	6.39
3. Lack of respect for organisational policy/law (self)	292	1.00	3.33	1.13	0.31	3.33	13.97
4. Lack of respect for legitimate organisational expectations (colleagues)	291	1.00	5.00	1.86	0.82	1.26	1.22
5. Lack of respect for co-workers (colleagues)	292	1.00	5.00	1.93	0.86	1.11	0.82
6. Lack of respect for organisational policy/law (colleagues)	289	1.00	5.00	1.48	0.72	2.39	6.98

4.5 Correlations between deviant workplace behaviour and character strength

factors

4.5.1 Pearson correlations and Spearman rank correlations between character strength factors and deviant workplace behaviour factors of the *self*

In order to address the main research questions, namely: to what extent is there a relationship between self-control and integrity as character strengths, and the propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour?, Pearson product moment correlation coefficients were calculated in order to establish the nature and extent of the relationships between each of the character strength and deviant workplace behaviour factors based on the self-report factors (*self*). As indicated in table 4.17 the lowest value of the correlations between the two character strength factors and the three deviant behaviour factors pertaining to the *self* is -.15 (the relationship between Lack of Respect for Co-Workers and Integrity), whereas the largest value is .62 (the relationship between Self-control and Integrity). The correlations are statistically significantly different from zero ($p < 0.00$) in all cases.

In terms of the strength of the relationships between the factors, the absolute values of the correlations indicate that the strength of the relationships between the factors range from weak ($r = .10$ to $.29$) to strong ($r = .50$ to 1.0) (Pallant, 2007, p. 132). More specifically, the correlations between Factor 2 (Integrity) and Factor 4 (Lack of Respect for Co-Workers) as well as Factor 1 (Self-control) and Factor 4 (Lack for Respect for Co-Workers) were the weakest with $-.15$ and $-.18$ respectively. The relationship between Factor 1 (Self-control) and Factor 2 (Integrity) as well as the relationship between Factor 3 (Lack of Respect for Organisational Expectations) and Factor 4 (Lack of Respect for Co-Workers) were the strongest, with $.62$ and $.56$ respectively. All other correlations were moderately strong ($r = .30$ to $.49$) (Pallant, 2007, p. 132).

Table 4.17

Pearson Correlations between Character Strength Factors and Deviant Workplace Behaviour Factors of the Employees (Self)

	Item	1	2	3	4	5
1	Self-control (self)	-	-	-	-	-
2	Integrity (self)	.62**	-	-	-	-
3	Lack of respect for legitimate organisational expectations (self)	-.30**	-.36**	-	-	-
4	Lack of respect for co-workers (self)	-.18**	-.15**	.56**	-	-
5	Lack of respect for organisational policy/law (self)	-.23**	-.31**	.35**	.30**	-

Statistical Significance:

** $p < .1$ (99% significance)

Practical Significance:

$r < .1$ (negligible effect)

$.1 \leq r < .3$ (small effect)

$.3 \leq r < .5$ (medium effect)

$r \geq .5$ (large effect)

With regard to the direction of the relationships between the factors, it was found that Factor 1 (Self-control) was positively correlated with Factor 2 (Integrity), indicating that the more employees perceive themselves to have self-control the more likely they are to perceive themselves as having integrity as well. Factor 1 (Self-control) was negatively correlated with Factor 3 (Lack of Respect for Legitimate Organisational Expectations), Factor 4 (Lack of Respect for Co-Workers) and Factor 5 (Lack of Respect for Organisational Policy/Law).

This specifies that the more employees perceive themselves to have self-control, the less likely they are to perceive themselves as having a propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour. Factor 2 (Integrity) was also negatively correlated with all three deviant workplace behaviour factors (Factor 3, 4, and 5) which indicates that the more employees perceive themselves to have integrity, the less likely they will perceive themselves as having a propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour.

Each of the three deviant workplace behaviour factors was positively correlated with the other deviant workplace behaviour factors: Factor 3 (Lack of Respect for Legitimate Organisational Expectations) was positively correlated with both Factor 4 (Lack of Respect for Legitimate Organisational Expectations) and Factor 5 (Lack of Respect for Organisational Policy/Law). Factor 4 (Lack of Respect for Co-Workers) was positively correlated with Factor 5 (Lack of Respect for Organisational Policy/Law). These results imply that the more respondents perceive themselves to have a propensity to engage in one form of deviant workplace behaviour, the more likely they are to perceive themselves as having a propensity to engage in the other forms of deviant workplace behaviour. For example: the more employees perceive themselves as having a propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour related to a lack of respect for their co-workers, the more likely they are to perceive themselves as having a propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour related to a lack of respect for organisational policy/law.

It could thus be concluded that the Self-control and Integrity factors are strongly and positively correlated to each other, indicating that the more self-control employees perceive themselves to have, the more likely they will be to perceive themselves to have integrity. In addition, the deviant workplace behaviour factors (Lack of Respect for Legitimate Organisational Expectations; Lack of Respect for Co-Workers; And Lack of Respect for Organisational Policy/Law) were moderately strong and positively correlated with each other.

This implies that the more employees perceive themselves to have a propensity to engage in one form of deviant workplace behaviour, the more likely they will be to perceive themselves as having the propensity to engage in other forms of deviant workplace behaviour.

In terms of the relationships between the character strength and deviant workplace behaviour factors, there is a negative, albeit only a weak to moderate relationship. The direction of the relationship implies that the more employees perceive themselves to have the character strengths of self-control and integrity, the less likely they are to perceive themselves as having the propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour. The strongest relationship in this regard as indicated in table 4.17 is between the Self-control and Lack of Respect for Legitimate Organisational Expectations ($r = -.30$), Integrity and Lack of Respect for Legitimate Organisational Expectations ($-.36$) and between Integrity and Lack of Respect for Organisational Policy/Law ($-.31$)

Table 4.18
Spearman Rank Correlations between Character Strength Factors and Deviant Workplace Behaviour Factors of the Employees (Self)

	Item	1	2	3	4	5
1	Self-control (self)	-	-	-	-	-
2	Integrity (self)	.58**	-	-	-	-
3	Lack of respect for legitimate organisational expectations (self)	-.34**	-.37**	-	-	-
4	Lack of respect for co-workers (self)	-.29**	-.24**	.59**	-	-
5	Lack of respect for organisational policy/law (self)	-.24**	-.37**	.36**	.24**	-

Statistical Significance:
** $p < .01$ (99% significance)

Practical Significance:
 $r < .1$ (negligible effect)
 $.1 \leq r < .3$ (small effect)
 $.3 \leq r < .5$ (medium effect)
 $r \geq .5$ (large effect)

Spearman rank correlation coefficients were also calculated due to the fact that the assumption of normality of the factors was not tenable for all factors (table 4.18). These yielded similar coefficients to those of the Pearson correlations. In all cases the direction of

the relationships was the same, while the magnitude in general only differed in the second decimal place.

4.5.2 Pearson correlations and Spearman rank correlations between character strength factors and deviant workplace behaviour factors of the *colleagues*

In order to establish the nature and extent of the relationship between the two character strength factors and the three deviant workplace behaviour factors pertaining to the *colleagues*, Pearson correlations were calculated. As indicated in table 4.19, the lowest value of the correlations between the two character strength factors and the three deviant workplace behaviour factors was $-.39$ (the relationship between Self-control and Lack of Respect for Organisational Policy/Law), whereas the largest value was $.77$ (the relationship between Self-control and Integrity). The correlations between the factors in relation to the *colleagues* were statistically significantly different from zero and stronger than the correlations pertaining to the *self* in all cases.

In terms of the strength of the relationships between the factors, the absolute values of the correlations in general indicate that the strength ranged from moderate ($r = .30$ to $.49$) to strong ($r = .50$ to 1.0) (Pallant, 2007, p. 132). The correlations between Factor 2 (Integrity) and Factor 5 (Lack of Respect for Organisational Policy/Law) and Factor 1 (Self-control) and Factor 5 (Lack of Respect for Organisational Policy/Law) were the weakest with $-.41$ and $-.39$ respectively. The relationship between Factor 1 (Self-control) and Factor 2 (Integrity) and the relationship between Factor 3 (Lack of Respect for Organisational Expectations) and Factor 4 (Lack of Respect for Co-Workers) were the strongest, with $.77$ and $.74$ respectively. All other correlations were moderately strong ($r = .30$ to $.49$) to strong ($r = .50$ to 1.00) (Pallant, 2007, p. 132).

Table 4.19

Pearson Correlations between Character Strength Factors and Deviant Workplace Behaviour Factors of the Colleagues

	Item	1	2	3	4	5
1	Self-control (colleagues)	-	-	-	-	-
2	Integrity (colleagues)	.77**	-	-	-	-
3	Lack of respect for legitimate organisational expectations (colleagues)	-.45**	-.50**	-	-	-
4	Lack of respect for co-workers (colleagues)	-.43**	-.46**	.74**	-	-
5	Lack of respect for organisational policy/law (colleagues)	-.39**	-.41**	.67**	.62**	-

Statistical Significance:

** $p < .01$ (99% significance)

Practical Significance:

$r < .1$ (negligible effect)

$.1 \leq r < .3$ (small effect)

$.3 \leq r < .5$ (medium effect)

$r \geq .5$ (large effect)

With regard to the direction of the relationships between the factors, it was found that Factor 1 (Self-control) was positively correlated with Factor 2 (Integrity) indicating that the more employees perceive their *colleagues* to have self-control the more they are likely to perceive them to have integrity. Factor 1 (Self-control) was negatively correlated with Factor 3 (Lack of Respect for Legitimate Organisational Expectations), Factor 4 (Lack of Respect for Co-Workers) and Factor 5 (Lack of Respect for Organisational Policy/Law). This result establishes that the more employees perceive their *colleagues* to have self-control, the less likely they are to perceive them as having a propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour. Factor 2 (Integrity) is negatively correlated with all three deviant workplace behaviour factors (Factor 3, 4 and 5) which indicates that the more employees perceive their *colleagues* to have integrity, the less likely they are to perceive them as having a propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour.

Factor 3 (Lack of Respect for Legitimate Organisational Expectations) was positively correlated with Factor 4 (Lack of Respect for Co-Workers) and Factor 5 (Lack of Respect for Organisational Policy/Law). This establishes that the more employees perceive their *colleagues* to have a propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour related to a lack of respect for legitimate organisational expectations, the more likely they are to perceive them

as having a propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour related to a lack of respect for their co-workers and organisational policy/law. Factor 4 (Lack of Respect for Co-Workers) is positively correlated with Factor 5 (Lack of Respect for Organisational Policy/Law) meaning that the more employees perceive their colleagues to have a propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour related to a lack of respect for co-workers, the more likely they will perceive their colleagues as having a propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour related to a lack of respect for organisational policy/law.

It could thus be concluded that Self-control and Integrity as character strength factors were strongly and positively correlated to each other, indicating that the more self-control employees perceive their *colleagues* to have, the more likely they will be to perceive them to have integrity. Additionally, the deviant workplace behaviour factors (Lack of Respect for Legitimate Organisational Expectations; Lack of Respect for Co-Workers; And Lack of Respect for Organisational Policy/Law) were strongly and positively correlated with each other. This signifies that the more employees perceive their *colleagues* to have a propensity to engage in one form of deviant workplace behaviour, the more likely they will perceive them as having the propensity to engage in other forms of deviant workplace behaviour. Furthermore, a moderate, negative relationship was established between the character strength factors (Self-control and Integrity) and the deviant workplace behaviour factors (Lack of Respect for Legitimate Organisational Expectations; Lack of Respect for Co-Workers; and Lack of Respect for Organisational Policy/Law) which specifies that the more employees perceive their *colleagues* to have self-control and integrity, the less likely they will be to perceive them as engaging in deviant workplace behaviour.

The Spearman rank correlation coefficients (table 4.20) were also calculated, due to the fact that the assumption of normality of the factors was not tenable for all factors. These yielded similar coefficients to those of the Pearson correlations. In all cases the direction of

the relationships was the same, while the magnitude in general only differed in the second decimal place.

Table 4.20

Spearman Rank Correlations between Character Strength Factors and Deviant Workplace Behaviour Factors of the Colleagues

Item	1	2	3	4	5
1. Self-control (colleagues)	-	-	-	-	-
2. Integrity (colleagues)	.75**	-	-	-	-
3. Lack of respect for legitimate organisational expectations (colleagues)	-.49**	-.52**	-	-	-
4. Lack of respect for co-workers (colleagues)	-.46**	-.45**	.74**	-	-
5. Lack of respect for organisational policy/law (colleagues)	-.45**	-.46**	.66**	.62**	-

Statistical Significance:
** $p < .1$ (99% significance)

Practical Significance:
 $r < .1$ (negligible effect)
 $.1 \leq r < .3$ (small effect)
 $.3 \leq r < .5$ (medium effect)
 $r \geq .5$ (large effect)

4.6 Differences between self-report and non-self-report measures

In order to meet the final objective of this study, namely to ascertain whether there are differences between self-report measures and non-self-report measures of self-control and integrity as character strengths and deviant workplace behaviour, the following null- and alternative hypotheses were formulated:

$$H_0: \text{Mean}_{\text{self}} = \text{Mean}_{\text{colleagues}}$$

$$H_a: \text{Mean}_{\text{self}} \neq \text{Mean}_{\text{colleagues}}$$

In order to test these hypotheses for each of the character strength and deviant workplace behaviour factors, paired-samples t-tests were conducted. Descriptive statistics for each of the factors and the results of the t-tests appear in table 4.21:

Table 4.21

Paired Samples Statistics of Character Strength Factors and Deviant Workplace Behaviour Factors

Paired samples	Factors	Mean	SD	SE	t	df	p
Pair 1	Self-control (self)	4.06	0.62	0.04			
	Self-control (colleagues)	3.48	0.74	0.04	-12.30	290	0.00
Pair 2	Integrity (self)	4.53	0.58	0.03			
	Integrity (colleagues)	3.60	0.85	0.05	-18.51	290	0.00
Pair 3	Lack of respect for legitimate organisational expectations (self)	1.35	0.41	0.02			
	Lack of respect for legitimate organisational expectations (colleagues)	1.86	0.82	0.05	12.27	290	0.00
Pair 4	Lack of respect for co-workers (self)	1.49	0.60	0.04			
	Lack of respect for co-workers (colleagues)	1.93	0.86	0.05	11.23	291	0.00
Pair 5	Lack of respect for organisational policy/law (self)	1.13	0.31	0.02			
	Lack of respect for organisational policy/law (colleagues)	1.48	0.72	0.04	9.21	288	0.00

The null-hypotheses were rejected for each of the factors ($p < 0.01$) in all cases. From table 4.21 it is evident that on average employees (*self*) perceive their own character strengths to be stronger than their *colleagues'* character strengths. The self-report measures (*self*) are on average higher than the non-self-report measures (*colleagues*). For example, the mean of the employees' (*self*) Self-control is 4.06 whereas the mean of their *colleagues'* Self-control is 3.48. The opposite, however, is true for the deviant workplace behaviour factors. On average the employees see themselves (*self*) as less likely to have a propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour, while they perceive their *colleagues* to have a stronger propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour (the means of the employees *self* are lower than the means of their *colleagues*). For example, the mean of Lack of Respect for Legitimate Organisational Expectations is 1.35 for the employees *self* and 1.86 for their *colleagues*.

4.7 Chapter integration

In Chapter 4 the findings and results of this research study was presented. Firstly, a detailed description was provided regarding the background characteristics of the sample. The factor analysis of the Character Strength Scale, relating in particular to the Self-control and Integrity Subscales, was reported in detail and followed by a description of the factor analysis results pertaining to the Deviant Workplace Behaviour Scale. One reliable factor was extracted in relation to the Self-control Subscale, and one reliable factor which related to the Integrity Subscale. With regard to the Deviant Workplace Behaviour Scale, three reliable factors were extracted. The character strengths factors were positively correlated and the deviant workplace behaviour factors were also positively correlated, for both the employees (*self*) and their *colleagues*. A negative correlation was reported between the character strength factors and the deviant workplace behaviour factors, both in relation to the employees (*self*) and their *colleagues*. Paired samples statistics were also conducted to test the hypothesis that mean self-report measures are the same as mean non-self-report measures. This revealed that employees on average perceive themselves (*self*) to have stronger character strengths than their colleagues. They also perceive themselves (*self*) as being less inclined to engage in deviant workplace behaviour than their *colleagues*. As a result, clear differences in findings were reported when using a self-report versus a non-self-report measurement in researching constructs of a sensitive nature, as presented in this study.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter an overview of the research is provided, followed by a discussion of the research findings and a conclusion of the main findings of the study. Possible recommendations for future research with regard to deviant workplace behaviour and character strengths (self-control and integrity) are presented, in addition to recommendations for specific stakeholders who could benefit from this study. Limitations of the study will be discussed in the penultimate section of the chapter. The chapter concludes with a number of final thoughts.

5.2 Research overview

The main research question addressed in this study relates to the establishment of whether a relationship exists between self-control and integrity as character strengths and the propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour. A further objective of this study was to establish whether self-report and non-self-report measures of the measured constructs yielded similar results. A secondary research question was formulated in order to determine whether there is a difference between self-report measures (*self*) and non-self-report measures (*colleagues*).

In order to answer the research questions, a scale developed by Peterson and Seligman (2004b) relating to character strengths (self-control and integrity), and scales developed by Bennett and Robinson (2000) and Stewart et al. (2009) relating to deviant workplace behaviour, were applied to the South African context using a convenience sample of 292 adults who had been employed by an organisation for a minimum of two years. The sample was representative of both males and females from different cultural and educational backgrounds across different organisations and industries in South Africa. For both the Self-control and Integrity Subscales in the VIA Scale (Peterson & Seligman, 2004b), as well as

the Workplace Deviance Scales of Bennett and Robinson (2000) and Stewart et al. (2009), principal axis factoring (PAF) was used to determine the underlying factors, as was Cronbach Alpha to establish the internal consistency. Pearson correlations were calculated to determine whether a relationship exists between the character strengths (self-control and integrity) and deviant workplace behaviour.

5.3 Discussion of research findings

The calculations of the principal axis factoring (PAF) and Cronbach Alpha yielded the following results. With regard to the Self-control Subscale, one reliable factor with a Cronbach Alpha value of .79 was extracted and termed Self-control. As far as integrity is concerned, one reliable factor with a Cronbach Alpha value of .87 was extracted and classified as Integrity. The Self-control and Integrity factors each consisted of five items. These results were similar to what Peterson and Seligman (2004b) found. They reported a Cronbach Alpha value of .75 for the Self-control factor and .72 for the Integrity factor, which was slightly smaller than that which was found in this study.

For the Workplace Deviance Scale of Bennett and Robinson (2000), three reliable factors were extracted. These factors were classified as Lack of respect for legitimate organisational expectations, Lack of respect for co-workers and Lack of respect for organisational policy/law. The first deviant workplace behaviour factor (Lack of respect for legitimate organisational expectations) consisted of ten items with a Cronbach Alpha value of .92 while the second deviant workplace behaviour factor (Lack of respect for co-workers) consisted of six items with a Cronbach Alpha value of .87. The third deviant workplace behaviour factor (Lack of respect for organisational policy/law) consisted of three items with a Cronbach Alpha value of .79.

These findings suggest that deviant workplace behaviour could be classified into three different factors in the South African context. The findings were in slight contrast to what

Bennett and Robinson (2000) and Stewart et al. (2009) found. Bennett and Robinson (2000) established a two-factor extraction, namely interpersonal deviance and organisational deviance. Interpersonal deviance incorporated both political and personal deviance and related to deviant workplace behaviour directed at employees or other stakeholders of an organisation. The organisational deviance incorporated production and property deviance relating to deviant workplace behaviour directed towards the organisation itself. The internal reliability of the interpersonal deviance factor was found to be .81 and that of the organisational deviance factor was .78 (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). Stewart et al. (2009) established a three-factor extraction, namely production deviance, property deviance and personal aggression. The internal reliabilities reported were .92 for production deviance, .95 for property deviance and .89 for personal aggression. As indicated above, the reliabilities of the three factors extracted in this study are similar to those found by Bennett and Robinson in 2000 and Stewart et al. in 2009.

It is argued that the first and third deviant workplace behaviour factors extracted in this study, namely, Lack of respect for legitimate organisational expectations and Lack of respect for organisational policy/law, relate to the organisational deviance factor, as established by Bennett and Robinson (2000). The second deviant workplace behaviour factor extracted in this study (Lack of respect for co-workers) is closely related to the interpersonal deviance factor as identified by Bennett and Robinson (2000).

In order to establish whether a relationship exists between self-control and integrity as character strengths and the propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour, Pearson correlations and Spearman rank correlations were calculated to investigate the extent to which these relationships exist. It was found that the two character strength factors (Self-control and Integrity) were strongly positively correlated to one another, and the three deviant workplace behaviour factors were also positively inter-correlated. Negative correlations were

evidenced between each of the character strength factors and the various deviant workplace behaviour factors, alluding to the fact that the more individuals display the character strengths of particularly self-control and integrity, the lower their propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour tends to be. In general, the strength of these relationships was only moderate.

These results confirm that a negative correlation exists between character strengths, in particular self-control and integrity, and the propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour. These results are in keeping with research findings in a developed economic context, as reported by Martin et al. (2009). However, they found a strong negative correlation between measures of deviant workplace behaviour and self-control and integrity, whereas the results of this study showed only a moderately strong relationship. Martin et al. (2009) concluded that it could be expected for an individual high in self-control and integrity to be less likely to have a propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour, and vice versa. Moreover, Marcus et al. (2002) also reported that the closest relationship with particular deviant workplace behaviour such as theft, absenteeism, and sexual harassment, was self-control and integrity. Restubog et al. (2010) explained that individuals high in self-control have the ability to control their desire to respond to anger and as a result are less prone to engage in deviant workplace behaviour. Similar results in relation to deviant workplace behaviour and self-control were also found by Douglas et al. (2008). They reported that individuals high in self-control would present a higher threshold for engaging in aggressive behaviour as a form of deviant workplace behaviour. Furthermore, Mikulay et al. (2001) reported that individuals high in integrity would be less likely to be influenced by the environmental risk associated with engaging in deviant workplace behaviour and as a result would be less inclined to engage in deviant workplace behaviour. With regard to establishing whether there is a difference between self-report measures (*self*) and non-self-report measures

(*colleagues*) the participants were requested to report on their own character strengths and propensity for deviant workplace behaviour, and their perceptions regarding their colleagues' character strengths and propensity for deviant workplace behaviour.

In general, it was found that employees perceive themselves as having stronger character strengths than those of their *colleagues*. They also perceived themselves as being less likely to have a propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour than that which they perceived their *colleagues* to have. Thus, employees tend to present themselves in a more favourable manner compared to their colleagues when asked to report on sensitive matters such as self-control, integrity and deviant workplace behaviour.

These findings are supported by research conducted in a developed economic context by Stewart et al. (2009), who argued that individuals would be more willing to report honestly regarding the deviant workplace behaviour of others rather than of themselves. For this very reason they developed the non-self-report measure of workplace deviance by adapting Bennett and Robinson's self-report measure of workplace deviance. This non-self-report measure was also used in the present study.

5.4 Main findings

From the findings presented in this study it is clear that differences are found in results when self-report measures versus non-self-report measures of self-control, integrity and deviant workplace behaviour are used. This clearly indicates that people are more likely to perceive themselves in a positive light when asked to report on sensitive issues as investigated in this study. By implication, the same might not apply to all measures, especially those that are not of a sensitive nature. It is thus not possible to accurately convey which measure, self-report or non-self-report is the more effective to be used in research studies. However, what can be said with confidence is that differences in results are reported

when using these different measurements, particularly when constructs of a sensitive nature are measured.

It is further evident from the findings of this study that a negative relationship exists between character strengths, self-control and integrity in particular, and deviant workplace behaviour. These results indicate that the more individuals perceive themselves to have self-control and integrity the more likely they are to perceive themselves to have a weaker propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour, and vice versa. Further, the more employees perceive their *colleagues* to have self-control and integrity, the more likely they are to perceive them to have a weaker propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour, and vice versa.

5.5 Recommendations

5.5.1 Recommendations for future research

The convenience sample used in this study was not representative of the entire South African population working within organisations. Thus it would be prudent in future research to replicate the study using a more representative sample of South Africans working in organisations. This would facilitate comparing groups of respondents from different industries or those with different demographic characteristics in terms of their responses. As another recommendation based on the research findings, further research should be conducted in order to affirm the one-factor extraction of both the Self-control Subscale and the Integrity Subscale, as well as the three-factor extraction of the Deviant Workplace Behaviour Scale, as found in this study. The questions used in this study as indicators of the propensity for deviant workplace behaviour should be investigated, improved and developed further in order to provide a more accurate reflection of the types of deviant workplace behaviour that occur in South Africa.

Due to the fact that internationally developed scales were used to measure character strengths (self-control and integrity) and propensity for deviant workplace behaviour among South African employees, there may be antecedents other than self-control and integrity that could warrant scrutiny. Therefore, not only should more research be conducted regarding the relationship between deviant workplace behaviour and self-control and integrity, but also toward identifying other antecedents linked to employees' propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour. Future research in the development of South African measures for the propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour should also be encouraged.

Even though research has been conducted in relation to self-control as a personality trait, personality construct, and personal characteristic, and integrity as a personality characteristic, moral character, personal value, ethical value and organisational value, a lack of research with regard to self-control and integrity as character strengths, particularly in relation to deviant workplace behaviour, exists. Future research could also be done to determine the underlying dimensions of self-control and integrity in general, particularly in the developing economic context of South Africa.

Deviant workplace behaviour is a complex phenomenon of which a broader and more in-depth understanding is needed. As a result, future research could be aimed at not only expanding on the existing research findings related to the dimensions, antecedents and consequences of deviant workplace behaviour, but also more specifically to focus on identifying protocols through which the occurrence of deviant workplace behaviour in organisations could be reduced and mitigated. Moreover, differences that might exist with regard to deviant workplace behaviour in developed countries and developing, or less developed countries, should be established.

Although research has been conducted with the use of quantitative research methodologies as in this study, qualitative research methodologies could be used in future in

order to gain a better understanding of the phenomena of deviant workplace behaviour and its dimensions, antecedents and consequences. By using qualitative research methodologies the most prominent types of deviant workplace behaviours that occur in South African organisations could possibly be identified and described.

There is a strong case to be made based on the findings of this study pointing to significant differences in results when self-report versus non-self-report measures are administered, particularly in relation to constructs of a sensitive nature, as researched in the present study. Therefore, as a further recommendation it is proposed that findings could be more beneficial and accurate when either non-self-report measures or a combination of self-report and non-self-report measures are used when conducting research on aspects of a sensitive nature. It would further be interesting to establish whether equally significant differences exist in relation to self-report and non-self-report measures when conducting research related to constructs that are not of a sensitive nature.

5.5.2 Recommendations for specific stakeholders

Deviant workplace behaviour could have detrimental consequences to the reputation and financial well-being of an organisation, its industry, and indeed the country in which it is based. Even deviant workplace behaviour of a seemingly less serious nature (e.g. gossip in the workplace and badmouthing the organisation) could lead to deviant workplace behaviour of a more serious nature, such as sabotage, workplace aggression or fraud, which might have a more detrimental impact on the financial costs and reputation of the organisation. In this study, deviant workplace behaviour has been categorised into three categories, namely Lack of Respect for Legitimate Organisational Expectations, Lack of Respect for Co-Workers, and Lack of Respect for Organisational Policy/Law. This informs organisations of the possible sources of deviant workplace behaviour within a South African context and such behaviour could be directed toward causing harm to the organisation and its stakeholders, or to the

specific co-workers or colleagues within the organisation. This knowledge could lead to the implementation of the necessary protocols within organisations in order to minimise the occurrence of such behaviour.

The findings regarding the particular relationship between deviant workplace behaviour and self-control and integrity could possibly motivate organisations, specifically human resource departments and recruitment agencies, to utilise measures of self-control and integrity as proxies for determining the propensity of employees to engage in deviant workplace behaviour. This information could further help these entities to employ individuals with ethical values and strong characteristics who will be more inclined to conduct their work in an ethical manner.

By incorporating measures of character strengths into the selection procedure of candidates, especially those working in departments or divisions where there is greater opportunity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour, ethical candidates could be selected and organisations can pave the way toward creating an ethical culture, even if only in certain divisions. As a result of employing more ethical individuals and creating more organisations with ethical cultures, the occurrence of deviant workplace behaviour could be mitigated. The more organisations conduct business in an ethical manner, the more positive that impact will be on the future of the South African economy.

5.6 Limitations

A possible limitation of this study could be the use of a convenience sample, since this choice of sample method meant that the study could not be generalised to the broader South African population. A larger sample size than that used in the study ($n=292$) could have provided a more accurate reflection of the diverse South African population. Specific limitations exist with regard to the distribution of respondents across age groups, mother tongue, current home language, education, and employment categories. As evident from the

research findings, most respondents were aged between 25 and 35 (40.8%), their mother tongue was mostly English (45.9%) and Afrikaans (28.4%), and their current home language was mostly English (51%) and Afrikaans (26.4%), which clearly indicates that the sample was not representative of the South African population.

Aspects of a sensitive nature, in particular, self-control, integrity and deviant workplace behaviour have been researched in this study, therefore, as evident from the research findings, a high socially desirable response bias occurred in that employees tended to portray themselves in a very positive light. This limitation was accounted for in the best way possible by administering non-self-report measurements along with the self-report measurements for both the Character Strengths Scale and Deviant Workplace Behaviour Scale.

The questionnaire used in this study to measure the character strengths (self-control and integrity) as well as deviant workplace behaviour, was adapted from internationally developed scales, namely the IPIP-VIA Scales (Values in Action [VIA] scale) by Peterson and Seligman (2004b) and the Workplace Deviance Scales by Bennett and Robinson (2000) and Stewart et al. (2009). Therefore, a limitation of the study could be that the final questionnaire was not developed specifically to the South African context or indeed, any other developing economic context. As a result, ambiguous interpretations could have been made by respondents regarding the terminology and constructs used in the questionnaire. However, this limitation was mitigated by conducting a pilot study prior to administering the questionnaire. This was done in an attempt to eliminate any confusion regarding the terminology used in the questionnaire. Although slight adaptations to the questionnaire were made by eliminating confusing terminology, the same questions from the scales developed by Peterson and Seligman (2004) with regard to the character strength, and those by Bennett and Robinson (2000) and Stewart et al. (2009) with regard to deviant workplace behaviour, were

used in this study. Additional questions reflecting sources of deviant workplace behaviour particular to the South African context may have been necessary.

No attempt was made in this study to determine whether, or to what extent, deviant workplace behaviour takes place in South African organisations. As a result, the study did not facilitate estimating the extent to which respondents engage in deviant workplace behaviour. The focus was rather on perceptions regarding the propensity to engage in deviant workplace behaviour. Although the former is an important avenue for research, it is fraught with ethical and methodological stumbling blocks.

5.7 Final thoughts

It is clear from the findings of this study, and the value potentially added, that organisations and their stakeholders, as well as academic researchers, have an important role to play in understanding, detecting and eliminating deviant workplace behaviour. This is needed in order for ethical practice to prevail, not only in organisations, but also in the developed and economically developing countries in which these organisations are based. Deviant workplace behaviour is a phenomenon with potentially dangerous consequences, extreme financial implications, and risk of societal damage. It is clear that attempts should be made to control and to eliminate it where possible. Through gaining a more in-depth understanding of deviant workplace behaviour, organisations, stakeholders and academic researchers can all contribute to managing the occurrence of such behaviour at all levels in business and public sector organisations. This effort could ultimately lead to more ethical business practice and the sustainable development of the global economy. Fraud and corruption is on the rise across the entire world, and by eliminating deviant workplace behaviour ranging from extreme to mild forms, South Africa, along with other countries across the world, could gradually assume a proactive role in curbing unethical conduct across the globe.

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APPENDIX

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

The following questions had different response indicators

1. What is your gender?
2. What is your current marital status?
3. What is your age category?
4. Which of the following is your mother tongue? (The language you first learned?)
5. Which one of the following is your current home language?
6. What is your highest level of education?
7. Which of the following best describes your current employment status?
8. How many years in total have you been employed by this company, organisation or academic institution (your employer)?
9. How many years of work experience do you have in total?
10. Which category best represents the size of your current employer in terms of number of employees?
11. Excluding yourself, how many people work in your immediate work environment, that is, in your section or division?
12. Which of the following best describes your level of seniority within the company, organisation or academic institution you are currently working for (your employer)?
13. What is the predominant industry of your current employer?

SECTION B: DEVIANT WORKPLACE BEHAVIOUR

Part A: How often do you:

1. Make fun of someone at work?
2. Play a mean prank on someone at work?
3. Falsify a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spent on business expenses?
4. Intentionally work slower than you could have worked?
5. Say something hurtful to someone at work?
6. Act rudely toward someone at work?
7. Take an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace?
8. Discuss confidential company information with an unauthorised person?
9. Make an ethnic, religious, or racial remark at work?
10. Publicly embarrass someone at work?
11. Come in late to work without permission?
12. Use an illegal drug or consume alcohol on the job?
13. Curse at someone at work?
14. Take property from work without permission?
15. Litter your work environment?
16. Put little effort into your work?
17. Spend too much time fantasising or daydreaming instead of working?
18. Neglect to follow your boss's instructions?
19. Drag out work in order to get overtime?

Part B: How often do your colleagues:

1. Make fun of someone at work?
2. Play a mean prank on someone at work?
3. Falsify a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spent on business expenses
4. Intentionally work slower than you could have worked?
5. Say something hurtful to someone at work?
6. Act rudely toward someone at work?
7. Take an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace?
8. Discuss confidential company information with an unauthorised person?
9. Make an ethnic, religious, or racial remark at work?
10. Publicly embarrass someone at work?
11. Come in late to work without permission?
12. Use an illegal drug or consume alcohol on the job?
13. Curse at someone at work?
14. Take property from work without permission?
15. Litter your work environment?
16. Put little effort into your work?
17. Spend too much time fantasising or daydreaming instead of working?
18. Neglect to follow your boss's instructions?
19. Drag out work in order to get overtime?

SECTION C: CHARACTER STRENGTHS

Part A:

1. I can be trusted to keep secrets
2. I am very good at getting things done
3. I am true to my values
4. I feel that practice is as important as performance
5. I like to exaggerate my troubles
6. I give in to my urges
7. I can be trusted to keep my promises
8. I give up things that are bad for me in the long run even if they make me
feel good in the short run
9. I control my emotions
10. I lie to get myself out of trouble
11. I am a highly disciplined person
12. I believe that honesty is the basis for trust
13. I do my tasks only just before they need to be done
14. People find it difficult to understand me
15. I keep my promises

Part B:

1. My colleagues can be trusted to keep secrets
2. My colleagues are very good at getting things done
3. My colleagues are true to their values
4. My colleagues feel that practice is as important as performance

5. My colleagues like to exaggerate their troubles
6. My colleagues give in to their urges
7. My colleagues can be trusted to keep their promises
8. My colleagues give up things that are bad for them in the long run even if
they make them feel good in the short run
9. My colleagues control their emotions
10. My colleagues lie to get themselves out of trouble
11. My colleagues are highly disciplined people
12. My colleagues believe that honesty is the basis for trust
13. My colleagues do their tasks only just before they need to be done
14. People find it difficult to understand my colleagues
15. My colleagues keep their promises